An Examination of the Functional Elements of an English Sentence: Together with a New System of Analytic Marks

William Garmonsway Wrightson

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BIBLIOLIFE

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A NEW SYSTEM OF ANALYTIC MARKS

BY THE

REV. W. G. WRIGHTSON, M.A. CANTAB.

PREFACE.

THE following work is a contribution towards the study of English grammar on such principles as may make our mother-tongue the best possible foundation for the study of kindred types of speech. It is a work on that Analysis of a Sentence which, by laying bare the elements of spoken thought, affords the only solid foundation for comparative grammar.

As a gradual growth, the structure of a language must always be examined on historic principles. Hence I have been obliged to refer to some of the earlier forms of speech, and in particular to that Old English which was spoken by our Anglo-Saxon ancestors. The prominence accorded to O.E. might be justified on the ground that it affords the earliest specimens of the language which has developed into the English of to-day. There is, however, another reason. The O.E. in use from A.D. 450 to A.D. 1100 is inflectional to so considerable an extent, that it prepares the mind of a mere English scholar to apprehend the nature of the so-called classical languages.

With regard to the treatment of my subject, I must make a few remarks.

The Introduction is given with much hesitation. Perhaps it would not have been given at all, if it had not obviated the necessity of adding certain disconnected appendices. It is an attempt to sketch in bold rough outline the growth of our Aryan speech: but in any such attempt one is frequently obliged to ignore, not only many minor points, but also the important distinction between positive facts and scientific hypotheses. To those who desire a fuller and much more exact sketch than is contained in this work, I recommend Peile's admirable *Primer of Philology*.

Under the head of the Primary Sentence, I have considered both the Cognate and the Indirect objects. The former of these terms receives a new width of application; but what has been said will be found to harmonize with the views, if not with the terminology, contained in Jelf's *Greek Grammar*, §§ 544–585. The latter term is used in accommodation to the standard English Grammar of Dr. Morell, who seems to apply it to all essential adverbials. When however we notice that such "Indirect Objects" need not consist of indirectly affected *objects* at all, we may be disposed to think that it would have been well to restrict the term to what is here described as the Remoter Object, and to leave all the rest of the so-called Indirect Objects to form a class distinguished as " Essential Adverbials."

The new classification of Analytic Elements, which forms the most characteristic feature of this work, has necessitated not only some modification in the meaning of old terms, but

also the introduction of some new ones. I have however endeavoured so to tabulate the elements of a sentence on p. 41, &c., that most of the new terminology will be found to associate itself readily with the remarkably uniform character of the phenomena I have pointed out,—see, for example, the three groups of triplets on p. 79.

The only part of this work which comes within the range of children, is that in which the system of Analytic Marks is explained. Although it is a system which ceases to be practically available in the analysis of very involved sentences, yet it is otherwise capable of meeting all the requirements of learners. The most involved specimens of speech are only unnecessary aggregations of those elements which are best examined and understood when presented in briefer sentences. This system of marks will be found even more useful in dealing with the synthetic languages of antiquity than with modern English : and I have many pages of Greek and Latin authors where, during the process of translation, an interlinear analy s has been made without trouble and with permanent advantage.

The great prominence I have given to the uncertainties and transitions of grammatical construction will doubtless prove irritating to those who wish to find everything fixed by rule. But, however irritating, it is a lesson of the utmost importance to the student that he should realize the plastic nature of human speech. Language does not grow in accordance with the rules of grammarians, but the rules of grammarians are framed in accordance with what happens to be the

most established form of linguistic growth. Hence their
rules have no necessary connection with the principles on
which a living speech is developed, but are simply a register
of the constructions in use for the time being amongst the
most cultivated sections of a community. The unwelcome
discovery of the uncertainty, which for example attends the
nature of many Objects, is invaluable, for thereby the student is
prepared for, and very often enabled to track out, those delicate
transitions of thought which have caused a wide divergence of
construction between his own and the classic languages, or
between the English of one period and of another. By the
Etymologist and Lexicographer a converse process may some-
times be followed with advantage; for, if the constructions
associated with a verb depend to a great extent upon what are
or have been its more delicate shades of meaning, surely those
shades of meaning must sometimes be indicated by the con-
structions,—see, for an example, p. 55, note.

To those students who desire to devote more attention to
English, I recommend the following works :—

> By Morris.
>> Specimens of Early English (A.D. 1150—A.D. 1300).
>> Historical Outlines of English Accidence.
>
> By Morris and Skeat.
>> Specimens of English (A.D. 1298—A.D. 1393).
>
> By Sweet.
>> Anglo-Saxon Primer.
>> Anglo-Saxon Reader.
>
> By Bosworth.
>> Smaller Anglo-Saxon Dictionary.

By Peile.
    Primer of Philology.

By Rev. W. Skeat, Professor of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge.
    Specimens of English Literature (A.D. 1394—A.D. 1579).
    Piers Plowman [Prologue and Passus I.—VII.].
    Concise Etymological Dictionary.
    Questions for Examination with Introduction on the Study of English.

Among the various books to which I am indebted for information several are included in the above list; but besides these I have made great use of the following Grammars, viz., that on Sanskrit by Monier Williams; those on Greek by Jelf, Donaldson, and Farrar; that by Kennedy known as *The Public School Latin Grammar;* that on Anglo-Saxon by Vernon; those on English by Morell, Morris, and Bain.

It only remains for me to express my very great obligation to Professor Skeat of Cambridge for his revision of the whole of the Old English, and my warm thanks to the Rev. Wentworth Webster, M.A., for his assistance in the revision of all the remaining portions of this work.

W. G. WRIGHTSON.

BECKENHAM, KENT,
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FUNCTIONAL ELEMENTS OF AN ENGLISH SENTENCE.

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———

ON THE APPROXIMATE PRONUNCIATION

OF

THE OLD ENGLISH ALPHABET,

As it appears in the following pages.

VOWELS.

The approximate sounds of the O.E. vowels are, with two exceptions, included in Mr. Pitman's well known phonetic series, and may be readily mastered. The long vowels in O.E. are usually marked with an accent, but this is often omitted. The short e, when final, is always so far sounded as to add a syllable to the word.

Phonetic.	O.E. vowels.	Key word.	O.E. Example.
ah	á	father	þá, hwá.
eh	ǽ, é	ale	þǽre, mé.
ee	í	eel	þín, mín.
aw	—	—	—
ŏ	ó	no	dó.
ōō	ú	moon	þú, úre, hús.
ă	æ, a	man	þæt, lang.
ĕ	e	men	web.
ĭ	i	it	þis.
ŏ	o	not	þonne.
ŭ	—	—	—
ŏŏ	u	good	burg.

The O.E. ý = the German ü in grun.
,, ,, y = the French u in feu.

CONSONANTS.

The O.E.	c	was pronounced as	c	in cat.
,,	,, cw	,,	,,	,, qu ,, quite.
,,	,, g	,,	,,	,, g ,, go.
,,	,, h	,,	,,	,, h ,, he, when initial.
,,	,, h	,,	,,	,, ch ,, loch [Scotch] when medial or final.
,,	,, f	,,	,,	,, f ,, of, when medial or final.
,,	,, ng	,,	,,	,, ng ,, finger.
,,	,, r	,,	,,	,, r ,, ray, i.e. with a strong trill.
,,	,, þ	,,	,,	,, th ,, thing, usually an initial letter.
,,	,, ð	,,	,,	,, th ,, this, usually a medial or final letter.

INTRODUCTION.

1. **A Sentence** or **Proposition** is the expression of a complete Thought in words. Logic teaches us that, no matter what may be its grammatical form, every proposition consists of three parts. The two parts, which most commonly *term-*inate the proposition at either end, are for this reason called the **Terms** : and the part, which couples the terms, is for this reason called the **Copula.**

2. **Terms** are the names or descriptions of things ; *i.e.* they are *Nouns* with or without limiting words, as the case may be. They may be classified and illustrated as follows :—

Terms,
- Concrete
  - Unique, *i.e.* the special name or description, *e.g.* the Earth, Queen Victoria, the land of Palestine, God, my father.
  - Collective
    - Unique, *i.e.* the special name or description of an aggregate, *e.g.* Mankind.
    - General, *i.e.* a common name or description of an aggregate, *e.g.* Nation, herds, flock of sheep, families.
  - General, *i.e.* a common name or description, *e.g.* Thing, man, women, animals, line of battle ships, swift things, things in the sky.
- Abstract, *i.e.* the name or description of any Quality, State, or Action, conceived of as abstracted from all connection with the person, thing, actual state or deed, without which such quality, &c., could not exist, *e.g.* goodness, vice, virtue, humility, existence, to exist.

Obs.—A true Abstract noun can neither have a plural nor receive the article 'a.' When it appears to do so, it has in reality become a General noun with a new shade of meaning. Thus in 'One vice is more expen-ive than ten virtues,' the noun 'vice' = manifestation or species of vice, and 'virtue' = manifestation or species of virtue.

3. The Terms of a proposition are distinguished as the Subject and Predicate.

The **Subject** is the name or description of that of which we are chiefly thinking and speaking.

The **Predicate** [logical] is the name or description of that which *coincides* with [§ 22 Obs.] or *includes* the subject,—just as a half-crown will coincide with another laid upon it, while it will include within its circumference a sixpenny or shilling piece. A Coincidence occurs, when the predicate consists of an Abstract or Unique noun, or of a General noun so limited as to become a Unique term, *e.g.* 'Virtue is *manliness*'; 'God is *the Creator*'; 'The king is *my father*'; 'Ravaillac was *the man who murdered Henry the Fourth of France*.' An Inclusion occurs, when the predicate consists of a General term, *e.g.* 'Dogs are *quadrupeds*'; 'Horses are *swift things*'; 'Stars are *things in the sky*.'

Obs. 1.—It is impossible to speak of one class of things without creating another class, for everything is either within or without the radius of that of which we speak. Hence if we speak of things called 'quadrupeds' we create an enormously larger class of '*not* quadrupeds'; if of 'swift things' we create a class of '*not* swift things'; if of 'things in the sky,' we create a class of 'things *not* in the sky.' Thus we have brought into being what are known as **Negative Predicates.** A negative predicate may be looked at as the name or description of an infinitely larger class than is indicated by the corresponding positive predicate; but its greater size does not make it less capable of including the subject : thus we can say, 'Birds are *not-quadrupeds*,' 'Snails are *not-swift-things*,' 'Trees are *things not-in-the-sky*.'

Obs. 2.—The classification afforded by the predicate is sometimes co-extensive in range with that which is indicated by a class [*i.e.* a general] noun ; but the things included under the head of such a noun are more

frequently subdivided into smaller classes, which are marked by the possession of some common quality or by some common circumstance of being. But when we say that some special thing is included in a class marked by some quality or circumstance, we necessarily attribute the said quality or circumstance to the thing included. Hence, when we say that the Subject is included in a Predicate marked by some quality or circumstance, it is the same thing as saying that **we predicate the said quality or circumstance of the subject.** Thus if I include ' horses ' in the class of ' swift animals,' I virtually assert [*i.e.* predicate] the swiftness of horses ; and if I include ' stars ' in the class of ' things in the sky,' I virtually assert the position of stars in the sky. Such is the first step in the transition from our logical to the usual mode of stating the relation subsisting between the subject and the predicate. There is however a second step. We must never forget that the effort which moulds the sentence is not the effort after logical precision of expression, but merely after intelligibility : thus whatever is unnecessary to the transmission of thought seldom finds its way into grammar. Now it is quite unnecessary to mention the class-noun which forms the nucleus of the logical predicate, when the nature of the noun is sufficiently indicated by the subject. Hence the predicate is often represented solely by the adjectival or adverbial attribute, common to both the subject and the predicate. Thus ' Horses are *swift animals*,' and ' Stars are *things in the sky*,' become, ' Horses are *swift*,' and ' Stars are *in the sky*.'

4. The Copula is the link, which unites the subject to the logical predicate, and which asserts that the subject coincides with, or is included in the predicate [§ 3]. Until joined by the copula two terms present us with two ideas, but not one thought. Thus if I say ' Dogs, quadrupeds,' you have the two ideas, *viz.* of ' dogs' and ' quadrupeds'; but you have no idea what I am thinking about them. When however I say, ' Dogs are quadrupeds,' you at once catch a thought, which may be either true or false, and concerning which a discussion may be carried on.

5. A subject, copula, and logical predicate, exist in every proposition whether they appear in actual speech or not. But although these logical elements have always existed in every sentence, it was not until language had been growing through an immense period of time that the means existed for

B 2

the separate expression of subject, copula, and predicate. Not until certain verbs, meaning ‘breathe,’ ‘dwell,’ ‘grow,’ ‘stand,’ &c., had attained to an almost withered old age [§ 22] did an Aryan copula exist. And it was not until this copula existed, that what had previously been nothing more than a *co-ordinating apposite* [§ 73] was found to represent the logical predicate, or at all events its Noun,—and that what had previously been nothing more than a co-ordinating attribute [§ 77] was found to represent the attribute of the said expressed or unexpressed Noun [§ 3, Obs. 2].

6. In sentences where subject, copula, and predicate, are separately expressed there is a correspondence between the grammatical and the logical divisions. The existence of this comparatively late, and still limited, form of sentence must not however be allowed to mislead the student into an idea that there is any regular correspondence between logic and grammar. The laws of Thought are widely different from the principles which have governed the development of Speech. The science of Logic approximates to that of Mathematics, while the science of Language is analogous to that of living organisms. There is indeed one most important analogy between the growth of Language and that of the Animal or Vegetable kingdoms ; for just as the Naturalist discovers that the phenomena of a gradual evolution do not preclude the continued presence of earlier types of organization, so does the modern Grammarian find traces, analogies, and con structions, belonging to all the ages, which afford as it were living specimens from each successive era of linguistic growth. And thus it comes to be no mere matter of curiosity, but rather one of necessity, that in this introductory chapter we should take a cursory glance at the successive stages in the development of our own Aryan family of speech, a family which not only includes the ancient Sanskrit-speaking Aryas, the Greeks, the Romans, the Goths, and the Anglo-Saxons ;

but also the modern Hindoos, Persians, French, Spaniards, Germans, and English, besides many more.

Remarks on some of the Leading Phenomena in the Growth of our Aryan Form of Speech.

7. The ultimate linguistic elements, into which science has succeeded in reducing speech, consist of significant syllables called **Roots**. If we lay aside a few imitative sounds, these may be divided into two classes, viz. *Predicative* and *Demonstrative* or *Pointing* roots.

8. Predicative Roots are single syllables, originally associated with a variety of actions, such as striking, rubbing, pushing, ploughing, measuring, &c. It is probable that by means of arrangement, accent, and intonation, these predicative roots may have risen to the dignity of words, but, if so, we have no trace of such a stage in the Aryan family of speech, and have for actual illustrations to turn to Chinese, where a predicative root may appear as noun, verb, adjective, or adverb.

9. Demonstrative or Pointing Roots[1] are single syllables expressive of *position* in relation to the speaker. We may describe them as pointing words, inasmuch as they must at first have always been coupled with the act of pointing. These pointing roots or words were three in number, but most naturally lent themselves to the expression of several analogous triplets. Thus they came to serve for

Here,	near here,	there.
This [here],	this [near here],	that [there].
I *v.* me,	thou *v.* thee,	he *v.* him.
One,	two,	three.

Obs.—In Book ii. Chap. i. of the *New Cratylus*, Dr. Donaldson shows that **Pronouns** in general were originally all Demonstrative. Hence

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[1] They are also called 'Pronominal roots' and 'Pronominal elements.'

they must all have their first beginnings in the above pointing roots. Their variations depend on the usages of syntax rather than on their original significance.

10. The Combination of Predicative and Pointing Roots was the first great step in word formation, for the meaning of a sentence was thus saved from depending exclusively on accent, intonation, arrangement, and the exercise of the hearer's imagination. Thus if a predicative root expressive of ' shining' were combined with the three pointing roots, *used in the sense of ' I,' ' thou,' and ' he,'* the three persons of a finite Verb would be formed having the force of

> I shine, or am shining.
> Thou shinest, or art shining.
> He shines, or is shining.

Again, if the same predicative root were combined with the three pointing roots, *used in the sense of ' This here,' ' this near here,' and ' that there,'* certain forms of a primitive Noun [1] would arise, equivalent to

> This here shines, or is shining,
> This near here shines, or is shining,
> That there shines, or is shining;

and two of these forms [2] would [when the difference between subject and object was realised] become available for the expression of the nominative and accusative cases.

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[1] ' What we now call a Noun was originally **a kind of sentence**, consisting of the root and some so-called suffix which pointed to something of which that root was predicated.'—Max Muller's *Hibbert Lectures* for 1878, p. 191.

[2] Donaldson [*Greek Gr.* § 152] says that the Nominative termination is derived from its second pointing root, while the Accusative is derived from the third.

If, however, the formation of the verb and noun had been
quite as simple as this, there would still have been nothing to
distinguish some of the cases of the noun from some of the
persons of the verb.   But, as it appears that all verbs were at
first reflexive [*i.e.* in the middle voice], we may conjecture
that the persons of the verb were in part distinguished from
the cases of the noun by the doubling of the appropriate pro-
nominal root.   The difference between the noun and verb was
however still more clearly indicated by the gradual introduction
of the formative suffixes described in the next section.

11. **Suffixes** are of two kinds, viz. *inflectional and
formative*.

Inflectional Suffixes are the terminations which mark
the cases, &c. of nouns, and the persons, &c. of verbs; and
they must have had their first beginnings, as before described
[§ 10], in the addition of pointing to predicative roots.

Formative Suffixes are the worn down remains of words,
which, though their meaning may be hopelessly lost, still retain
the power of marking the part of speech to which a word
primarily belongs.   When added to a Predicative root they
formed what is known as **the Stem** of a noun, verb, &c., and
were followed by the inflectional suffix.   There are verbs
remaining which have never had a verbal formative-suffix
inserted between the root and the personal inflection ; because,
when the corresponding noun had been marked by its noun-
suffix, there was no need to add any further mark to the verb.
Since the almost entire loss of our Old English *inflectional*
suffixes, our verbs and nouns consist for the most part of
variously constructed stems.

12. Almost all Aryan words are compounds, but only a small
portion of these can be broken up into separately significant
parts without the aid of science.   These **Separable Com-
pounds**, if we lay aside a miscellaneous crowd of chance
agglutinations, consist for the most part of an inflected noun,

verbal noun, adjective, participle, or verb, *preceded* [1] *by one or more uninflected words.* But of all these combinations the scope of this present work only requires us to notice a single class, viz. that in which the uninflected word consists of *the stem of a noun or verbal-noun.* Such stems are not only prefixed to nouns, verbal-nouns, adjectives, participles, and verbs, but also to *other noun stems* to such an extent, that in Sanskrit a compound word will sometimes contain as many as a dozen isolated stems, and in English three or even four may form a compound not altogether beyond our comprehension, as for example

A church-going-bell-sound = A sound of a bell for going to church.
A beef-steak-pie-man   = A man for pies of steak of beef.

In all such compounds the prefixed stems stand to the following word or stem in the relation of *one or other of the oblique cases;* and, except in the accusative relation, may always be replaced by an equivalent adjectival or adverbial phrase *standing after instead of before* the superior word. When the compounds contain only one noun-stem [as is generally now the case], they are capable of receiving a convenient set of names based on the consideration of the peculiar case-function discharged by the prefixed stem. This terminalogy appears in brackets in the following series of examples, where compound nouns, adjectives, participles, and verbs, are grouped apart.

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[1] In Aryan speech the *determinant precedes* the thing determined ; we say for instance, river-horse, not horse-river ; sea-captain, not captain-sea : in Semitic speech on the other hand, *the thing determined precedes the determinant, e.g.* Samuel = 'asked-God,' but the corresponding Aryan word by which Josephus renders it means ' God-asked.' See Farrar's *Families of Speech,* Chap iii. Compare *Public School Latin Gr.* § 60.

Compound Nouns :—

A sheep-shearing [*a genitive compound*] = a shearing of sheep.
A walking-stick [*a dative compound*] = a stick for walking.
A brew-house [*a dative compound*] = a house for brewing.
Garden-fruit [*an ablative compound*] = fruit from gardens.
An hotel-waiter [*a locative compound*] = a waiter at an hotel.
A steam-plough [*an instrumental compound*] = a plough by steam.
A horse-soldier [*a sociative compound*] = a soldier with a horse.

Compound Adjectives :—

Trust-worthy [*gen. comp.*]	= worthy of trust.
Man-like [*dat. comp.*]	= like to a man.
Fool-hardy [*loc. comp.*]	= hardy in folly.

Compound Participles :—

Heart-rending [*acc. comp.*]	= rending the heart.
Law-abiding [*loc. comp.*]	= abiding in the law.
Moth-eaten [*instr. comp.*]	= eaten by moths.

Compound Verbs :—

He back-bites [*loc. comp.*]	= he bites at the back.
He white-washes [*instr. comp.*]	= he washes with white.

So far as our analysis is concerned we must treat all such compounds *as single words*,—nouns, adjectives, participles, or verbs, according as the final word is one or other of these parts of speech.

Obs. 1.—The fact that almost all modern English nouns are merely stems, obliges us to turn to languages like Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, for Aryan compounds serving to prove that the prefixed words do properly appear, as stems. We are helped however to realize that our prefixed

nouns are really stems, when we notice that the plural inflection is not added, even when a plural is meant. Thus in the compound 'star-encircled' we do not say '*stars*-encircled' although we mean 'encircled with *stars*.'

Obs. 2.—In Sanskrit the stems generally remain unchanged; but in Greek and Latin the final vowel is frequently altered or a connecting vowel is introduced. See Monier Williams's *Sanskrit Gr.* § 734, and Abbott and Mansfield's *Primer of Greek Gr.* § 178.

13. A Noun or Substantive is the name of anything, whether actually possessed of, or only regarded as if possessed of, *independent* existence. The origin of this part of speech has already been touched upon [§ 10] but its growth in Aryan speech must now be briefly sketched. We have seen that man in possessing Roots possessed sounds, at first significant of his own actions, but which were inevitably soon applied to the same actions when performed, or supposed to be performed, by other animate or inanimate objects. When we firmly grasp the principle that 'all ancient nouns expressed *activities*' [Müller], we have no difficulty in understanding how the naming of objects was at first achieved. It was done by *predicating of them some human action*, which they were observed or were supposed to be performing. Thus the most primitive nouns may always be expanded into sentences, of which the suffixed Pointing Root forms the subject and the prefixed Predicative Root forms the predicate. For example, amongst the earliest names for river, plough, and moon, we have nouns which mean, 'This runs or is running,' 'This divides or is dividing,' 'That measures or is measuring.' The addition of a noun formative suffix [§ 11] was the next step in advance. This was most probably soon followed by the habitual appropriation of one of the Demonstrative Roots to the indication of the Subject of an action and of another to the indication of the Object; thus forming the Nominative and Accusative cases, and originating what is commonly called the Declension of the

Noun. The Vocative, which is not properly a case, would of course be represented by the uninflected stem.

When once the habit of indicating the relation of nouns to verbs by inflectional suffixes was started, there was no theoretic reason why the new crop of cases should not become as numerous as the prepositions, which have recently replaced them. The Aryan case system is however seen at possibly its maximum point of development in Sanskrit, although there are non-Aryan languages [*e.g.* the Basque and Finnish] with a still greater number of cases. The most characteristic functions of the Aryan so-called cases may be approximately arrived at by a comparison of various Aryan languages. They may with tolerable accuracy be taken to be as follows :—

The **Nominative** case marks the subject of a verb.

The **Accusative** case marks the cognate [§ 40] and direct object [§ 49] of a verb, and has also acquired a distinctly *adverbial* force, expressive of the course, progress, direction, and duration of an action. Hence we may speak of both a substantival and of an adverbial accusative [see § 46].

The **Vocative** [not a case] is a stem used interjectionally.

The **Genitive** case marks one noun or pronoun as occupying some adjectival relation to another noun. As its many uses include that of expressing reference [§ 82], we shall occasionally allow ourselves to speak of an adverbial, as distinguished from the adjectival, genitive.

The **Dative** case marks the end of an action. Hence it comes to indicate the remoter object affected by or even interested [1] in an act; and also the purpose, motive, or final cause which actuates the mind of the actor.

The **Ablative** case marks the starting-point or origin of

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[1] When the dative is used to mark the person interested in an act it is called the Ethical dative. *e.g.* ' Es lief *mir* ein hund uber den weg ' = There ran *me* a dog across the way. ' With trial-fire touch *me* his finger-end.' Shakspere. See § 83, Obs. 2.

some action. Hence it serves to tell the initial [*i.e.* the first] cause of an act.

The **Locative** case marks the place or sphere of an action.

The **Instrumental** case marks the instrumental means by which something is done.

These so-called cases discharge the functions of no less than *four separate parts of speech*, viz. the noun, adjective, adverb, and interjection, and may be tabulated as follows :—

Case.	*Function.*	*Serve to tell of.*	*Prepositional equivalent.*
Nom. . .	Substantival.	Subject of verb.	—
Acc. . .	,,	Object of verb.	—
Voc. . .	Interjectional.	Person addressed.	—
Gen . .	Adjectival .	Material, possessor, &c. of something.	of.
Acc.[adv.]	Adverbial .	Course, duration, &c. of act	along, during, &c.
Gen.[adv.]	,,	Reference[1] of an act .	of = about, concerning.
Dat. . .	,,	End or purpose of an act	to, for.
Abl. . .	,,	Beginning or first cause of an act. :	from.
Loc. . .	,,	Place or sphere of an act	at, in, on.
Instr. . .	,,	Means for an act .	by, with.

It is many ages since the irremediable decay of the old Aryan declensions commenced in the confusion of the cases.

[1] The adverbial idea of Reference may be conveyed by a true adjective [*e.g.* A *popish* scare = a scare *concerning the pope*]. Hence when the adverbial genitive is attached to a **noun** we shall treat it as an adjectival.

Both the sounds and senses of the terminations often ran into
one another; and when the meaning of a verb had changed,
while the case conventionally associated with it remained, a
still further cause of confusion arose. It is easy to illustrate
the progress of the collapse of the case system by a comparison
of three leading Aryan languages. Taking Sanskrit as the
standard form, we see how the cases which it still possesses
have run together in the Latin and the Greek —

Latin.	Sanskrit.	Greek.
Nom.	Nom.	Nom.
Voc.	Voc.	Voc.
Acc.	Acc.	Acc.
Gen.	Gen. ⎱	
	Abl. ⎰	Gen.
Abl.	Instr. ⎱	
	Loc. ⎰	Dat.
Dat.	Dat. ⎭	

If instead of Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit, we make the
comparison between our Old and Modern English, we
have only a further illustration of the collapse of the case
system.

Modern English Pronouns.	Old English.	Modern English Nouns.
Nominative	Nom.	
——	Voc.	
	Acc. ⎱	——
Objective	Dat.	
	Instr. ⎰	
Possessive	Gen	Possessive.

Thus, except so far as the Possessive case answers for the
Genitive, modern English has lost every case of the noun,
although still possessing three cases among the pronouns.
With the exception of the Possessive case, and the mark of the
plural, *our nouns are merely the Stems of words, which were*

once declined. Thus the noun 'end' was declined in O.E. as follows :—

Singular.			*Plural.*
Nom. end -e,	. . . .		end -as.
Acc. end -e,	. . . .		end -as,
Gen. end -es,	. . . .		end -a.
Dat. end -e,	. . . .		end -um.
Instr. end -é,	. . . .		end -um.

From what has been said in this section, as well as from what is to follow in the immediately ensuing sections, the student will observe that although adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, are known to have been formed in many various ways, yet all these parts of speech may be safely regarded as having in the first place originated in the declension of nouns and pronouns.

Obs.—Although it is quite incorrect to speak of cases in respect of our modern uninflected nouns, yet we may allow ourselves to describe some of their substantival, adjectival, or adverbial functions by a reference to the functions of the old Aryan cases as given above. Thus we shall often speak of a modern noun as discharging a 'nominative function,' a 'dative function,' a 'locative function,' &c. &c. Such terminology forms however no essential portion of this book, and need not be adopted by the student, who has in the Table of Adverbials given in § 82 ample suggestions for an alternative description of at all events the adverbial case-functions.

14. An **Adjective** expresses an *un*-abstracted quality ; which quality, when abstracted [*i.e.* when spoken of as if possessing an independent existence], becomes an abstract noun [§ 2]. Thus the adjectives 'high' and 'good,' when abstracted, turn into the abstract nouns 'height' and 'goodness'; but there is frequently no difference of form between the adjective and its corresponding abstract noun, *e.g.* our word 'evil' which represents both the Greek adjective πονηρός and the abstract noun πονηρία. It is beyond the scope of this work to say much about the peculiarities of form belonging to adjectives, but there can be no doubt that many adjectives

have originated in the genitive case of nouns.[1] Such a genitive, after undergoing more or less modification, formed a new stem, which became attracted by mere juxta-position into a variety of inflections belonging to the nouns with which it was in attribution.   Thus, for example, our possessive-adjectives are derived from the genitive of the personal pronouns, *e.g.* ' Mine ' is the modern mode of spelling the old genitive of ' Ic ' = I.

Indeed, when we notice how an adjective can always be replaced by a genitive case, by a genitive prepositional-phrase, or by a genitive-compound [§ 12], we see that 'adjectives though highly convenient are not indispensable to a language ' [Farrar].

15. An **Adverb** expresses the place, time, cause, or manner, of an act, or of anything else besides an act concerning which one or more of such secondary predications can in the nature of things be made.   With the exception of one use of the demonstrative roots [§ 9] the earliest adverbs were nothing more than the *adverbial cases of older nouns and pronouns,*— just as our adverb ' whil-om ' is an old dative [locative] case of the noun ' while ' = time, and our pronominal adverb ' how ' is an old instrumental case of the interrogative pronoun ' what.'

16. A **Preposition** was originally nothing but an *adverb of place*, which was extended by analogy or metaphor to relations of time, cause, and manner.   Prepositions, as such, did not belong to the earlier stages of linguistic growth ; but came into being as the cases began to lose their import, and as people tried to clear up the meaning by placing a suitable adverb before [and sometimes after] the noun or pronoun.   Called in at first merely to assist the failing cases, the prepositions have at length so nearly replaced them, that we may speak of prepositions as **Case-equivalents.**   When we go back to Greek and Latin, we find the case-system still so far in use, that an

[1] See *New Cratylus*, § 298.

unaided adverbial case sometimes discharges its more ancient function, although in general requiring the aid of a preposition. In the still earlier Sanskrit, where the case-system is in fuller life, there are but three prepositions used with nouns. Hence we see that it is an inaccurate, though a well-established and useful expression, when we speak of prepositions 'governing a case.' In reality the case is the principal, and the preposition the subordinate word standing in a sort of apposition to the noun.

17. **Conjunctions** serve most characteristically to unite clauses so as to show their relation to one another. The conjunctions are classified as co-ordinate or sub-ordinate, according as the clauses which they connect are co-ordinate or sub-ordinate, *i.e.* adverbial [§§ 119, 108]. Without conjunctions language would consist of little more than a number of short propositions, whose relation to one another could only be supplied by common sense. This was the condition of our Aryan speech at first ; and even yet, we are not much distressed by the occasional omission of a conjunction, as in the familiar passages :—

'Serve the Lord with gladness.' [and] 'Come before his presence with singing.'

'The Lord reigneth.' [therefore] 'Let the earth rejoice.'

[Because] 'Thou takest away their breath. They die.'

Conjunctions have been derived from a variety of sources ; but, just like the original adverbs and prepositions, the earliest conjunctions were undoubtedly the cases of nouns and pronouns —generally of the latter. Thus the co-ordinate conjunction 'and' is represented by 'que' in Latin, and 'καί' in Greek, of which 'que' is certainly, and 'καί' is probably, a form of the relative ; and our own subordinate conjunctions 'where' and 'when' are old adverbial cases of the interrogative pronoun 'what.'

18. The Verb [finite [1]] is by far the most important word in a sentence. Without it no thought can be fully expressed, and it is sometimes adequate to the expression of an entire thought, as Amo = I am loving,—Go = go thou. Indeed, the finite Verb is the only part of speech which is capable of alone forming the *Grammatical* Predicate, which grammatical predicate *includes both the logical predicate and copula* [§§ 3, 4].

As the Verb and Noun are the two great parts of speech, it is very important to notice wherein the difference between them really lies. That it does not lie in the formative suffix [§ 11] is clear when we notice that a noun stem may appear in a verb, as in ' I *housed* the furniture,' and that a verb stem must appear in a verbal noun, as in ' *Writing* is useful.' But it does lie *in the addition of an inflectional suffix having the force of a personal pronoun*. Where this mark of personal agency has been worn off, there is, apart from use, nothing in the mere form of the word to distinguish it from a noun. Thus, as standing by itself, ' love ' may be either a noun or a verb ; but ' loveth ' [where the ' -th ' represents the old personal suffix] is unmistakably a verb.

There is little doubt that the oldest verbs were ' self affecting,' so that the earliest personal endings probably consisted of a doubling of the appropriate pronominal root. We have no such ' Middle Voice ' verbs remaining in English, but they are partially represented by the Reflexive verbs which abound in many modern languages. With these verbs, while there is both subject and object, there is no difference between that which forms the subject and that which forms the object. Hence it is not difficult to see how the Middle Voice may have branched

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[1] The Verb infinite is not properly a verb. It consists of verbal Nouns [called Infinitives, Gerunds, or Supines] and verbal Adjectives [called Participles]. We however often find it convenient to speak of such nouns and adjectives as ' Verbals.'

out [with some modifications of form] into the Active Voice on
the one hand and into the Passive Voice on the other.   Thus
the Reflexives 'I remember me,' and 'I employ myself,' open
out into the Active 'I remember,' and the Passive 'I am
employed.'   In Latin the ancient Middle Voice [*e.g.* 'remi-
niscor' = I remember me; 'utor' = I employ myself], which
is now represented by the so-called Deponent verbs, has lent
its form to the Passive, even while its meaning may have
become exclusively Active, *e.g.* 'prædor' = I plunder.   See
also § 21.

We have noticed the decay of the old Aryan declension and
the replacement of most of the cases by periphrastic forms,
consisting mainly of prepositional phrases : and we must now
observe that a similar change has taken place with the Conju-
gation, where single words have been to an enormous extent
replaced by periphrastic combinations, consisting chiefly of
pronouns, auxiliaries, and participles.   The reduction of eight
old Aryan cases of nouns to one in Modern English was great ;
but such a reduction is felt to be insignificant in comparison
with what must have taken place in the Conjugation, when we
notice that, while ' the English verb has five forms [*i.e.* love,
lovest, loves, loved, loving] ; the Greek verb has about twelve
hundred ' [Farrar].   The O.E. has twelve forms, against the
modern five [*i.e.* lufige, lufast, lufað, lufiað ; lufode, lufodest,
lufodon, lufa ; lufod ; lufigende], exclusive of the infinitive
with its dative inflection.

The *etymological* origin of the forms, which have with more
or less exactness become appropriated to the expression of
Tense and Mood, lies beyond the range of our introductory
sketch.   It is however of great importance that in the following
sections a clear view should be given of their *grammatical*
nature and general scope.

19. The **Tenses** are forms of the Verb which enable us to
indicate the State of an action *in either a hypothetical or cate-*

gorical sentence, and the Time of an action *in a categorical* sentence. Thus it is *only in the Indicative* that tenses truly indicate time.

α. The most natural conception we can form of the *State* of an action is that it is Entire [*i.e.* Simple], Completed [*i.e.* Perfect], Progressing [*i.e.* Imperfect], or Undertaken [*i.e.* Inceptive], as

> You ate . . . . Simple.
> You had eaten . . . . . . Perfect.
> You were eating . . . . . Imperfect.
> You were about to eat . . . Inceptive.

But as any of these may belong to the past, the present, or the future, we have twelve forms, viz.

Simple past,	Simple present,	Simple future,
Perfect past,	Perfect present,	Perfect future,
Imperfect past,	Imperfect present,	Imperfect future,
Inceptive past,	Inceptive present,	Inceptive future.

β. The simplest conception we can have of the *Time* of an entire action is that it is in the Past, the Present, or the Future, and so the forms which do no more than indicate this much are called Simple or Absolute tenses. But an action often calls for a much more definite location in time than is afforded by the mere indication of its being in the past, present, or future. Such a farther indication is obtained by mentioning some other action, having some temporal relation to the first act. In fact, to use an engineering illustration, we construc a Time Scale, of which the alternate intervals represent the unoccupied time following on some completed act,—the occupied time covered by some progressing act,—or again the unoccupied time preceding some impending act ; and then we definitely locate the Simple act by noting where it cuts across the scale.

Thus, if the act be located during the time which *commences with the completion of another action*, we have a Simple tense associated with a Perfect tense, as

I wrote [Simple], after you had gone [Perfect].

Again, if it be located during the time *at which another action is progressing*, we have a Simple tense associated with an Imperfect tense, as

I wrote [Simple], while you were sleeping [Imperfect].

Again, if it be located during the time which *precedes the commencement of another action*, we have a Simple tense associated with an Inceptive tense, as

I wrote [Simple] when you were about to leave [Inceptive].

It is from this use of the Perfect, Imperfect, and Inceptive forms, that they acquire their name of **Relative** tenses : and it is obvious that, in regard to any act cutting across the time scale, they are relatively past, present, or future.

The relative tenses are, through the presence of an obvious ellipsis, very often found to stand alone, *e.g.* ' He was suffering [at the time of which I speak]'; 'I have [even as I speak] written my letter.' Again, two relative tenses may as it were run parallel to one another, *e.g.* ' I was working, while you were sleeping.'

The obvious meaning of a speaker often infuses what is really a foreign meaning into a tense. Thus we sometimes find a Perfect assuming the complexion of a Severed Imperfect, *e.g.* 'I have written [= have been writing] for six hours, and cannot go on much longer.'

The following table serves, not only to illustrate, but also to form the best possible memorial arrangement of the above tenses.

		PAST. [Historic].	PRESENT. [Primary].	FUTURE.
ABSOLUTE.	SIMPLE.	SIMPLE PAST. Act. I smote, Pass. I was smitten.	SIMPLE PRESENT. Act. I smite. Pass. I am smitten.	SIMPLE FUTURE. Act. I shall smite. Pass. I shall be smitten.
RELATIVELY	PAST. PERFECT.	PAST PERFECT. Act. I had¹ smitten, Pass. I had been smitten.	PRESENT PERFECT. Act. I have¹ smitten. Pass. I have been smitten.	FUTURE PERFECT. Act. I shall have¹ smitten. Pass. I shall have been smitten.
	PRESENT. IMPERFECT.	PAST IMPERFECT. Act. I was smiling. Pass. I was being smitten.	PRESENT IMPERFECT. Act. I am smiling Pass. I am being smitten.	FUTURE IMPERFECT. Act. I shall be smiling. Pass. I shall be being smitten.
	FUTURE. INCEPTIVE.	PAST INCEPTIVE. Act. I was going to smite. Pass. I was going to be smitten.	PRESENT INCEPTIVE. Act. I am going to smite. Pass. I am going to be smitten.	FUTURE INCEPTIVE. Act. I shall be going to smite. Pass. I shall be going to be smitten.

¹ Intransitive verbs often make their Perfects with the verb 'to be,' as 'I was com ' ' I am come '

For the sake of tabular completeness the following relative tense peculiar to the English [1] has been omitted :—

PAST SEVERED-IMPERFECT.	PRESENT SEVERED-IMPERFECT.	FUTURE SEVERED-IMPERFECT
Act. I had been smiting.	*Act.* I have been smiting.	*Act.* I shall have been smiting.
Pass. I had been being smitten	*Pass.* I have been being smitten.	*Pass.* I shall have been being smitten

The student must not overlook the fact that, with the exception of the Simple Present and Simple Past, every English tense is periphrastic. It is however by means of these periphrastic analytic combinations that we have been able to fill up every portion of the above table of standard tenses ; and it is indeed vain to search for any Aryan language which presents us with a separate synthetic form for each tense. Thus in Latin 'scripsi' = 'I wrote' and 'I have written' ;—in Greek γράψω = 'I shall write' and 'I shall be writing' ;—in Old English 'Ic write' = 'I write,' 'I am writing,' and 'I shall write' ;—and again in O.E. 'Ic wrát' = 'I wrote,' 'I have written,' and 'I had written,' although the two last are generally formed as in modern English.

20. The **Moods** serve to indicate the ground on which a statement rests. If a statement is presented as in accordance with an objective fact, it is said to be Categorical : if it is presented as merely in accordance with the subjective view of the speaker, it is said to be Hypothetical. Two great moods answer to this distinction :—the *Indicative*, which deals with

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[1] We are able to represent a Simple act not only as *cutting across*, but also as *cutting off* so much of a progressing act ; *e.g.* 'I *had been walking* for an hour, when she joined me.' Hence the suggestion of the name 'Severed-Imperfect.'

facts, is the categorical mood, and the *Conjunctive*, which deals
with conceptions, is the hypothetical mood.   There is another
mood expressive of commands, but the Imperative is borrowed
or formed from the indicative, when obedience is assumed as a
fact ; and from the conjunctive when obedience is recognised
as more or less uncertain.[1]

The Conjunctive is however the only mood which calls for
special notice in a work like this, and to it we now devote our
attention.

It is obvious that, as a hypothetical statement deals with
other matters than that of objective facts, all such statements
must rest on some *subjective foundation* of *possibility*, *power*,
choice, *constraint*, *duty*, or *necessity*.   With a greater or less
degree of consistency some at least of these ideas have
ever been associated with the conjunctive, and in analytic
conjugations they were certain to determine the choice of the
auxiliaries.   Thus in modern English we have auxiliaries and
quasi-auxiliaries answering very closely to the above ideas, as
we see in the following direct and oblique [§ 34] assertions.

Possibility	{	I **may**	g**o**.
		I said that I **might**	go.
Power	{	I **can**	go.
		I said that I **could**	go.
Choice	{	I **will**	go.
		I said that I **would**	go.
Constraint	{	I **shall**	go.
		I said that I **should**	go.
Duty	{	I **ought** to go.
		I said that I **ought** to go.
Necessity	{	I **must**	go.
		I said that I **must** .	go.

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[1] Dr. Donaldson [*New Cratylus*, Book iv. Ch. 3] says, " It may be
doubted if the Imperative is really entitled to the rank of a distinct
mood."

It is often desirable to impart to a statement a much more intensely hypothetical character than arises from the bare expression of *present* certainty, determination, &c., &c. : and this is attained by using a past tense instead of a present.

The immensely different complexion imparted to a hypothetical statement by this use of a past [*i.e.* historic] tense, as if it were a present, has caused many grammarians to *divide the Conjunctive* into two moods, which we shall designate as the **Subjunctive** and **Potential**. In modern English these are increasingly represented by the present and past tenses of auxiliaries, and decreasingly by the present and past tenses of an older conjunctive. But except in their possession of both an historic and primary form, the so-called tenses of the conjunctive have [at all events in the direct construction] no connection with the *time of the predicated action.* They merely call attention to an act or state, as *simple*, as *completed*, as *progressing*, or as *inceptive :* and in this respect they are identical with the tenses of the Infinitive [§ 25] and of the Participle [§ 24].

The following table of the Conjunctive Mood should be studied in connection with § 112, Obs. 2 and 3.

Obs. 1.—The earlier, and what we may call the O.E. type of the Conjunctive tenses, is distinguished by the entire absence of any difference in form between the three persons ; and is described by Morell as the "Conditional mood," inasmuch as its special uses are now almost confined to conditional clauses. The later type of the Conjunctive is distinguished by the presence of auxiliaries which are themselves in the indicative mood ; and is described by Morell as the "Potential mood." The two considerations, which have induced a divergence from so high an authority as Dr. Morell, are (1) our plan of conforming when admissible to the principles contained in the most recent standard Greek and Latin grammars ; and (2) the obvious fact that, except in certain protases, the older type of the Conjunctive has been replaced, or is almost always replaceable, by the newer periphrases, *e.g.* 'He were [= would be] foolish, if he were to do so ' ; ' I will punish thee, whosoever thou be [= mayest be].'

CONJUNCTIVE MOOD.

		HISTORIC FORM.	PRIMARY FORM.
SIMPLE		**SIMPLE POTENTIAL.** *Act.* { He smote.[1] { He might, could, would, should smite. *Pass.* { He were smitten, { „ might, could, would, should, be smitten.	**SIMPLE SUBJUNCTIVE,** *Act.* { He smite, { „ may, can, [shall, will,] smite. *Pass.* { He be smitten, { „ may, can, [shall, will,] be smitten.
PERFECT.		**POTENTIAL PERFECT.** *Act.* { He had smitten.[1] { „ might, could, would, should, have smitten. *Pass.* { He had been smitten.[1] { „ might, could, would, should, have been smitten.	**SUBJUNCTIVE PERFECT.** *Act.* { He have smitten. { „ may, can, [shall, will,] have smitten. *Pass.* { He have been smitten, { „ may can, [shall, will,] have been smitten.
IMPERFECT.		**POTENTIAL IMPERFECT.** *Act.* { He were smiting, { „ might, could, would, should, be smiting. *Pass.* { He were being smitten, { „ might, could, would, should, be being smitten.	**SUBJUNCTIVE IMPERFECT.** *Act.* { He be smiting, { „ may, can, [shall, will,] be smiting. *Pass.* { He be being smitten, { „ may, can, [shall, will,] be being smitten.
INCEPTIVE.		**POTENTIAL INCEPTIVE** *Act.* { He were about to smite. { „ might, could, would, should, be about to smite. *Pass.* { He were about to be smitten. { „ might, could, would, should, be about to be smitten.	**SUBJUNCTIVE INCEPTIVE** *Act.* { He be about to smite. { „ may, can, [shall, will,] be about to smite. *Pass.* { He be about to be smitten, { „ may, can, [shall, will,] be about to be smitten.

[1] It is only in the 2nd pers. sing. that this can be seen to differ from the Indicative.

Obs. 2.—The fact that what is as yet only conceived in the mind, is in general a something which can only be realised in the future, causes so close a connection to arise between the Conjunctive mood and the Future tense, that parts of the former have sometimes been derived from the latter, and the latter from the former. But though a predication in the conjunctive mood may refer to a future fact, yet there is no necessary implication of futurity in this mood, simply *as a mood.* Thus ' I *may be* willing' remains unchanged, whether the adverbials 'at the present moment' or 'ten days hence' be added ; and there is no difference in the tense, whether I say ' He *might go* just now' or ' He *might go* next week.'

Obs. 3.—The adoption of a set of past tenses in the formation of the potential mood has given rise to a well known ambiguity. Thus in such a sentence as ' He said that they might go,' we have an oblique assertion ' they might go' after a past tense 'said.' But it is impossible, at all events in absence of a protasis, to tell whether this oblique assertion represents the direct assertion ' They may go ' [Subjunctive], or ' They might go ' [Potential]. Hence there is in many Aryan languages a close connection between the Potential [or Optative] mood and the oblique assertion after an historic tense.

Obs. 4.—There is no true Future Indicative tense in English, but, since O.E. times, some of the Conjunctive auxiliaries have been adopted to serve for a Future, as follows ·

In the Direct assertion.

I shall go,—thou wilt go,—he will go, &c.

In the Oblique assertion after a present tense.

I say that I shall go,—thou wilt go,—he will go.

Thou sayest that thou shalt go,—I will go,—he will go.

He says that he[1] shall go,— $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I will go} \\ \text{thou wilt go} \end{array} \right\}$,—he will go.

In the Oblique assertion after a past tense.

I said that I should go,—that thou wouldst go,—that he would go.

Thou saidst that thou shouldst go,—that I would go,—that he would go.

He said that he[2] should go,— $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I would go} \\ \text{thou wouldst go} \end{array} \right\}$,—that he would go.[2]

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[1] The 'he' refers to 'himself.' If it referred to any other person or thing it would be followed by 'will' or 'would.'

[2] There is no difficulty as to the auxiliaries in these Oblique clauses. If the word be 'shall' in the direct clause, it is 'shall' or 'should' in the oblique. If it be 'will' in the direct, then it is 'will' or 'would' in the oblique.

The ambiguity referred to in the previous observation exists here also in the oblique future after a past tense. The old conjunctive force still to some extent clings about this modern future indicative, as we see in the Scotch 'What o'clock *will* it be? = What o'clock may it be; and as we see in the A.V. 'No man can spoil his goods, except he *will* first *bind* the strong man,' where 'will bind' represents the subjunctive simple of the Greek, the O.E., Wycliffe, and Tyndale, of the same passage. But if the above 'shall' and 'will,' become 'will' and 'shall'; and the 'should' and 'would' become 'would' and 'should'; we cease to have an indicative Future and have once more a Conjunctive. Thus the change in the R.A.V. in Heb. iii. 7 and 15, of 'will' and 'shall,' arose from the Revisers noticing that the word rendered 'will hear' in the A.V. was in reality a tense of the Greek conjunctive.

21. The Classification of Verbs according to their meaning in a sentence is to some extent reflected in the various conjugational **Voices**, but by no means completely so. This classification by meaning rests primarily on the consideration. Whether the subject of the verb is Active or Quiescent ; and secondarily, Whether the said subject affects or is affected by anything or nothing. Such a classification may be tabulated and illustrated as follows :—

	VERB.			
Active.		**Active and Quiescent.**	**Quiescent.**	
Active Transitive. Affecting.	**Active Intransitive. Unaffecting.**	**Middle. Self-affecting.**	**Passive [Intransitive.] Affected.**	**Neuter [Intransitive.] Unaffected.**
Ex. :—	*Ex.* :—	*Ex.* :—	*Ex.* :—	*Ex.* :—
I strike him.	I walk.	I bethink me	I am struck.	I exist
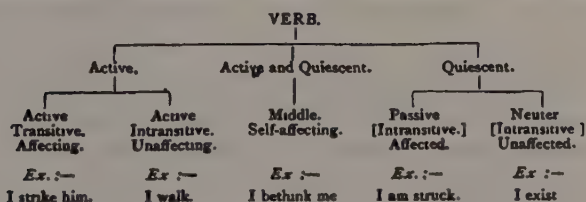
So great however are the fluctuations of meaning, not only in the course of ages, but in the course of our own conversation, that the same verb often slides out of one class into another. Thus for example 'I breathe' is capable of meaning 'I exist,' and may therefore slide from the active intransitive class into the neuter class. Again, if by 'I breathe' I mean 'I inspire air,' the verb 'breathe' slides from the active intransitive into the

active transitive class.   Lastly, when we render the French ' Je me promène' by 'I walk,' we see how readily a middle voice passes into an active.   Indeed some tenses tend to impart a transitive, and others an intransitive complexion to the same verb ; for though we say ' I wrote *a letter*, before you came,' we feel no need of an object in ' I *was writing*, before you came.'

These illustrations are sufficient to prevent the student from attaching too much importance to any classification which depends on the ever-changing meaning of words.

Obs.—Although the Middle Voice always refers to 'self,' the student must not imagine that the 'self' is always in the relation of a direct object. Thus παρασκευάζομαι = I prepare *for* myself.   But in English we have no Middle Voice save that which is represented by the so-called Reflexive verbs, where 'self' is invariably in the relation of a direct object.   See § 49, Obs. 1.

22. The Copula, although it existed before the separation of the great Aryan race, may nevertheless be looked at as in a sense the highest point in the growth of speech ; inasmuch as the formation of the Copula marks the point where, for the first time, language and thought, grammar and logic met [§ 5].

There is more than one part of speech out of which the logical copula might grow, but in Aryan speech it is a verb, or rather several verbs, which generally predicated Existence, but have now ceased necessarily to predicate anything at all.   It is not difficult to follow the process of this formation.   The idea of the existence of the Subject of our thought is usually so much a matter of course, that without some special emphasis we scarcely note the fact :—

Thus if I said, 'This horse exists *swift*,' the unemphatic predication of the horse's existence would *drop out of sight in comparison with the more important additional predication of its swiftness*. So long as the first predication, viz. that of existence, was conveyed to the mind, the word 'swift' would be nothing

but a co-ordinating attribute [§ 77] suggesting an additional predicate; but, as soon as the needless predication of existence dropped out of sight, the only predicate remaining would be 'swift,' and the disregarded verb of existence would gradually sink to the level of a mere link. Such was the formation of our copula; and such were the steps by which the logical predicate or its attribute came to be expressed.

A super-sensuous idea like that of Existence could of course only be expressed by associating it with some sensuous idea. Now, inasmuch as such ideas as 'growing,' 'breathing,' 'dwelling,' 'standing,' call special attention to the life or existence of the something which grows, breathes, dwells, or stands, these verbs very readily lent themselves to the expression of existence; and, along with some others, have all come to be used as copulas. Thus in English

'be' is from a predicative root bhu-, expressive of growing.
'am' 　　　　　,,　　　　　as-,　　　,,　　　breathing.
'was' 　　　　,,　　　　　was-,　　　,,　　　dwelling.

Obs.—When we notice how frequently there is a coincidence between the subject and logical predicate (see § 3), we see it was possible that our copula might have grown out of a pronoun having the force of 'the same.' Such was indeed the case in old Egyptian, where 'Bachtan *the-same* thy city' = Bachtan *is* thy city. See Renouf's *Egyptian Grammar*, p. 15.

23. The **Metamorphosis** of one part of speech into another is a common phenomenon in the growth of our language; for though 'all the parts of speech are but the modification of two, viz. the noun and the verb' [*Primer of Philology*, p. 121], yet all these parts, or special parts of these parts, are liable to be used for, or modified to suit, other than their original purposes.

For example, nouns expressive of a material are constantly used for adjectives, as 'The table is *mahogany*.' Most nouns may be turned into verbs, as 'Who will *bell* the cat?' Verbs

may become nouns, as ' What a *go* / ' Participles may become
conjunctions, as ' I will consent *supposing* you really wish.'
The adjectival and adverbial cases of nouns and pronouns are
[as we have already seen] continually turning into adjectives
and adverbs. The cases of nouns and pronouns, and even the
persons of verbs, are liable to be used as stems, and to receive
a secondary set of inflections belonging possibly to an altogether
different part of speech; thus the O.E. genitive of Ic [= I]
was mín [= of me], this was turned into the adjective mín
[mine] and received inflections, *e.g.* 'mín-es faeder (gen.) ' =
of my father.

There are many illustrations of metamorphosis still more
curious than these; but the only two of which we need to take
special notice here are the Verbal-adjectives and Verbal-nouns,
—which are of course chiefly derived from verbs.

24. Verbal-adjectives or **Participles**, though possessing
many verbal qualities, are in reality *attributive* words, inasmuch
as they discharge all the functions of adjectives. As adjectives,
they may be either epithetic [*e.g. running* water], subordinating [1]
[*e.g.* we met him *walking*], co-ordinating [*e.g. entering* the room,
he sat down], or complementary [*e.g.* he was *writing*].   Again,
so long as the declension of nouns continued, the participles,
like other adjectives, received the case inflections, which
served to indicate the noun with which they were in attri-
bution; thus the Gothic for ' He saw Simon and Andrew . . .
casting a net" = Gasahw Seimonu jah Andraian . . . wair-
pandans [acc. plu.] nati.   Lastly, the participles, like other

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[1] The subordinating [*i.e* adverbial] participle has in some languages
acquired certain idiomatic uses not clearly attributive.   Thus the fact that
the *cause* of a perception is also its *object*, has allowed the causal participle
in Greek to become an object [*i.e.* a substantival] after a verb of percep-
tion, *e.g.* οἶδα θνητὸς ὤν = I know that I am mortal [lit. I know being
mortal].   There are several other idiomatic uses, but they all appear to
have grown out of subordinating attributes, telling of the time, cause, or
manner of an action.

adjectives, have sometimes come to be used absolutely, as a noun or verbal-noun [*e.g. being vanquished* is humiliating].

With the exception of mood and person, the participles possess all the qualities of verbs. Hence they are modified by adverbs,—are completed by the same objects and complements as their corresponding verbs,—and have both voices and tenses. In voice the participles are Active, Passive, or Middle, according to the *state of the person* or thing with which they are in attribution : and in tense they are Simple, Perfect, Imperfect, or Inceptive, according as the action or *state of the action* is represented as entire from beginning to end, as completed, as progressing, or as impending. Properly speaking, the tenses of the participles do not tell us of the *time* of an action, but only of its *state*. That the temporal idea [which often seems to belong to them] is only infused from the finite verb with which they are associated, is best seen, when we notice how the most commonly used participles are only past, present, or future according to the tense of the main verb. It is thus in—

' I saw him falling,' where the state of falling is in the past.
' I see him falling,'   ,,   ,,   ,,   ,,   ,,   present.
' I shall see him falling,'   ,,   ,,   ,,   ,,   future.
' She saw him fallen,' where the state of fallenness is in the past.
' She sees him fallen,' where the state of fallenness is in the present.
' She will see him fallen,' where the state of fallenness is in the future.

From this we see that a complete system of participles would exist, if for each voice there were four distinct forms, viz. a Simple, a Perfect, an Imperfect, and an Inceptive, serving to express the state, but not the time, of an action. In Greek and Latin there are near approaches to such a system ; but

in our Teutonic speech we have only two non-periphrastic
participles, viz. an active Imperfect [*e.g.* falling, sinking, loving],
and a Perfect [*e.g.* fallen, sunk, loved]. Of these, the former is
sometimes [see Obs.] used with the force of an active Simple[1],
and the latter constantly used as either active or passive
Perfect, as passive Simple, and possibly even as a passive
Imperfect. Thus:

> ' We heard her *singing* ' [act. Imperfect].
> '*Entering* [act. Simple] the room, she sat down.'
> 'She saw him *fallen* ' [act. Perfect].
> 'They had the dinner *cooked* ' [pass. Perfect].
> ' I saw the casket *sunk* [pass. Simple] before I left.'
> ' This is a much *admired* [? pass. Imperfect] picture.'

In the following table of modern English participles both the
periphrastic and non-periphrastic forms are included.

SIMPLE . . {	*Act.* . . *Pass.* .	sometimes the Act. Imperfect form. sometimes the Perfect (*a*) form.

PERFECT . . {	*Act.* . . {
	
	 Pass. . {
		fallen (*a*).
		 having *v.* being fallen (*β*).
		 loved (*a*).
		 having been loved (*β*).

IMPERFECT . {	*Act.* . . *Pass.* .	falling. being loved.
INCEPTIVE . {	*Act.* . . *Pass.* .	(being) about to fall. (being) about to be loved.

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[1] It sometimes appears to be also used as a pass. Impf., but such is not
really the case ; for though 'The house was *preparing*' = The house was
being prepared, yet the word 'preparing' is not a participle at all, but a

As to the origin of participles,—*i.e.* the origin of the *stems* of these once inflected adjectives,—we might guess that they were the oblique cases of nouns or verbal-nouns, and that guess would be supported when we noticed that 'A ship *in sail*' = a ship *sailing*, and 'an object *of dread*' = a *dreaded* object. But a minute examination of the Aryan participles serves to show that the stem of at all events the Imperfect participle is most commonly of the same form as the third person plural of the present indicative, as may be seen in Greek, Latin, and Gothic.

—	PRES. IND. 3 PER. PLU.	STEM OF PARTICIPLE.
Greek . .	τύπτοντι[1] = they are striking .	τυπτοντ- = striking.
Latin . .	Amant = they are loving .	amant- = loving.
Gothic . .	Haband = they are having .	haband- = having.

Our modern English termination '-ing' has replaced the O.E. '-ende,' which last, if formed on the above principle, points us back to some prehistoric time, when our ancestors had a 3rd pers. plu. in '-end' *v.* '-and,' instead of the O.E. '-að' common to all the pers. plur. The English terminations '-en' [of strong verbs] and '-ed' [of weak verbs] are of adjectival origin.

Obs.—The act. Imperfect Participle can only have the force of an active Simple when it serves as a co-ordinating attribute, *e.g.* 'Entering the room,

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gerund governed by an elliptical preposition, as we see in the A.V., 'While the ark was a [= in *v.* on] preparing,' and 'Forty and six years was this temple in building.'

[1] Modified into τύπτουσι in classic Greek.

she sat down' = She entered the room and sat down. Hence it is only when they are co-ordinating attributes that we can render the Greek Simple [*i.e.* aoristic] participles by our imperfect participle. Otherwise we should render them either by a clause containing a simple tense,—by a preposition with a gerund or noun,—or by a simple infinitive. For more on this, see an able article by Professor Evans in the *Expositor* for March, 1882. When in Luke x. 18, Ulphilas rendered the Greek aoristic participle by the Teutonic [Gothic] imperfect participle, he made our Lord speak of seeing Satan 'falling' instead of 'fall' [simple infin.] from heaven.

25. **Verbal-nouns**, *i.e.* **Infinitives, Gerunds, and Supines,** although possessing many of the qualities of verbs, are in reality *abstract nouns,* inasmuch as they discharge the functions of nouns. As nouns, they present us with a variety of declensions, all more or less incomplete. Thus the Latin Supines in '-um' and '-u' represent the acc. and loc. cases of the most ancient known form of the Aryan verbal-noun.[1] Again, the Latin Gerund has the acc., gen., and dat., cases. Again, the classical Infinitives were probably all modifications of dat. and loc. cases. In English we have only two verbal-nouns, viz. the Infinitive and what [but see Obs.] we shall here term our Gerund. This so-called Gerund originates in an O.E. noun ending in '-ung' [*e.g.* seo huntung = the hunting], which ending has now been modified into '-ing.' But, as such a form is indistinguishable from our modern imperfect participle used absolutely, we shall, for convenience sake, include under the head of Gerund all verbals in '-ing' which may chance to be discharging the functions of nouns,—as may be seen either from their being preceded by a preposition [N.B.—not subordinate conjunction] or from being capable of replacement by an infinitive. By the aid of prepositions our gerund may be made to discharge every possible case function; but the infinitive very rarely discharges more than four. The case function of the infinitive

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[1] The Latin Supine in ' -um ' is identical with the so-called Infinitive in Sanskrit.

is most readily discovered by noticing its equivalent gerund,
as illustrated in the following table :—

	GERUND.	INFINITIVE.
Nom	hunting	= to[1] hunt.
Acc.	hunting	= to hunt.
Gen.	of *v.* about hunting .	= ... .
Dat.	to *v.* for hunting . .	= [for] to hunt.
Loc.	in *v.* on [= a-] hunting	= to hunt.
Instr.	by *v.* with hunting . .	= .. .
&c.	&c.	=

Verbal-nouns, though in varying degrees, all possess certain
verbal qualities. Thus the abstract nature of verbal-nouns, by
making them expressive of a *conception* rather than of a *fact*,
causes them to approximate so closely to the conjunctive mood,
that clauses with a conjunctive are frequently replaced by an
infinitive, *e.g.* 'I hope *that I may go*' = I hope *to go*. Again,
verbal-nouns are usually completed with the same objects or
complements as the corresponding verb. Again, infinitives
are modified by adverbials. And lastly, infinitives, and
even gerunds [if we include among them participles used
absolutely], have tenses. The nature of the tenses of verbal-
nouns is identical with that of verbal-adjectives described in
§ 24, where the student will see that such tenses tell
nothing of the Time, but only of the State, of an action,

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[1] 'To' is the usual mark of the infinitive in modern English, but it is
only a Preposition when the infinitive is discharging a dative function. In
O.E. it never appears before an infinitive which has not the dative
inflection, *e.g.* tó bindan-ne = for to bind.

and that any time-colouring which they seem to possess is only reflected upon them from the main verb with which they are associated. The tenses of our verbal-nouns are as follows :—

— —	—	GERUND.	INFINITIVE.
SIMPLE .	*Act.*	falling	= to fall.
	Pass.	being loved	= to be loved.
PERFECT .	*Act.*	having fallen	= to have fallen.
	Pass.	having been loved . .	= to have been loved.
IMPERFECT	*Act.*	falling	= to be falling.
	Pass.	being loved	= to be being loved.
INCEPTIVE	*Act.*	being about to fall . .	= to be about to fall.
	Pass.	being about to be loved	= { to be about to be loved.

It is impossible for us to trace out the origin of the Aryan verbal-nouns, although in passing we may observe that the Latin gerunds obviously originated in the neuter of the participle in ‘-ndus’ used absolutely.

Obs.—The student must not forget that Anglo-Saxon grammarians have given the name of Gerund to the Inflected [*i.e.* Dative] Infinitive. Hence it is a question whether we do well to give the same name to our modern English substantivals in ‘ -ing.’ As here used, the word Gerund = either a verbal-noun in ‘ -ing,’ or a participle in ‘ -ing’ used absolutely. Those who prefer to do so can use the longer description, rather than the conveniently short word here adopted.

26. Syntax is the systematic account of the construction of single and connected sentences ; or rather, it is the *imperfect result* of an attempt to classify linguistic usages, which usages, having commenced with a wild luxuriance, that knew no limit save that of intelligibility, gradually settled down into more or less precise forms.   Every language has its own peculiar constructions, which do not admit of being literally translated. Hence the syntax, which is common to the Aryan family of speech, is narrow in comparison with the syntax of any one member of that family.

Of this common Syntax little can be said except that all the Aryan languages have possessed what is called the Agreement of the Noun with its verb, apposite, and attribute,—the use of cases,—and at least some modal indication of the distinction between the categorical and hypothetical proposition.

Many years ago an eminent professor of Geology told his pupils that they would learn more of the crust of the earth by the thorough examination of a single district than by casual observations in a dozen counties.   And on just the same principle we may say that more can be learned of Syntax by a systematic effort at mastering the constructions of our own magnificent language than by any other means within the reach of most of us.   The foundation for all sound syntactical knowledge is found in the scientific analysis of a sentence.   Such an analysis is as unlike parsing, as the separation of an animal according to the functional divisions of its body by an anatomist, is unlike the chopping of it into pieces by the butcher or the cook.   And it is by means of such an Analysis that we arrive at those Functional elements of a spoken Thought which it is our purpose to examine in the following pages.

FUNCTIONAL ELEMENTS

OF AN

ENGLISH SENTENCE.

GENERAL REMARKS.

27. A Sentence is the categorical or hypothetical[1] expression of a complete Thought in words. It may appear in the form of an Assertion, Petition, or Question, and any one of these three may be affirmative or negative : but inasmuch as both petitions and questions may for analytic purposes be cast into the form of an assertion, we shall generally refer to sentences as assertions or statements.

28. Every sentence contains elements which discharge distinctly different grammatical functions in respect of the Thought. The separation or classification of these grammatical elements constitutes the Analysis of a Sentence.

29. " A complete Thought implies a notion of doing or being, in connection with a notion of something which does or is" [Dalgleish]. These two separate notions form the two great grammatical divisions of every sentence. That which asserts

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[1] For the meaning of these terms, see § 20.

the 'doing or being,' is the grammatical **Predicate**; and that which names the thing which 'does or is,' is the **Subject**, as

"The heart which trusts [Subject] for ever sings [Predicate]."

Obs.—Although the division of a sentence into subject and predicate is an analysis, it is generally necessary to have analysis carried to a much greater length, as may be seen in the ensuing pages.

30. The Classification of the functional elements is based on the two great divisions of a sentence, viz. the subject and the predicate, thus

Whatever can stand alone as the subject of a sentence is a **Substantival**; and

Whatever can stand alone as the predicate of a sentence is a **Verb.**

But verbs and substantivals are not the only possible elements, for they may require limitation or definition, thus

Whatever can limit a substantival,—otherwise than in respect of place, time, cause, or manner,—is an **Adjectival.**

Whatever can limit a verb is an **Adverbial.**

And whatever can attach or link together words, phrases, or clauses, is a **Connective.**

Hence we have Verbs, Connectives, Substantivals, Adjectivals, and Adverbials. But although the most characteristic functions of all of these have just been given, yet the three last discharge such a variety of functions, that it is necessary to adopt a more or less satisfactory system of terminology by which to distinguish them. This system appears in the subjoined table, and will be explained hereafter in the course of this work.

TABLE OF FUNCTIONAL ELEMENTS.

α. Verbs.

β. Connectives.

γ. Substantivals appear as :—

Subject or Object of Verbs . . . . . . [*Characteristic function*].
Epithetic Apposites.
Subordinating   ,, ... ⎫
Co-ordinating   ,, ... ⎬ *Double function.*
Complementary ,, ... ⎭

δ. Adjectivals appear as :—

Epithetic Attributes . . . . [*Characteristic function*].
Subordinating   ,, ... ⎫
Co-ordinating   ,, ... ⎬ *Double function.*
Complementary ,, ... ⎭

ε. Adverbials appear as :—

Adverbials to verb, adjective, or adverb . [*Characteristic function*].
Epithetic Adverbial-attributes.
Subordinating   ,, ... ⎫
Co-ordinating   ,, ... ⎬ *Double function.*
Complementary   ,, ... ⎭

The words, phrases, and clauses, of which these functional
elements most commonly consist may be tabulated as fol-
lows:—

α. *Verbs* :—

The three persons of any tense.

β. *Connectives* :—

Conjunctions ⎰ Co-ordinate.
⎱ Subordinate.
Relatives   . ⎰ Relative Pronouns.
⎱ Relative Adverbs.

γ. *Substantivals :—*

Noun.
　　　Any adjectival, adverbial, &c., used absolutely, *i.e.* as a Noun.
Pronoun.
Verbal-Nouns, *i.e.* an Infinitive or Gerund.
Verbal-Noun Phrase, *i.e.* an Infin. or Ger. with belongings.
Noun Clause $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{oblique assertion.} \\ \text{,,　　petition.} \\ \text{,,　　question.} \end{array}\right.$
Quotation.

δ. *Adjectivals :—*

Adjective.
　　　Noun used as adjective, *e.g.* Noun of Material.
Adjective-pronoun $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{demonstrative adj.} \\ \text{possessive　　,,} \end{array}\right.$
Numeral Adjectives $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{Cardinal, } e.g. \text{ an, one, two.} \\ \text{Ordinal, } e.g. \text{ first, other, second.} \\ \text{Indefinite, } e.g. \text{ all, many, few.} \end{array}\right.$
Adjectival Case, usually Possessive.
Verbal-Adjective, *i.e.* a Participle.
Participial Phrase, *i.e.* participle with belongings.
Adjectival Prepositional-Phrase = adjectival case.
Adjectival Clause, *i.e.* a Relative Clause.

ε. *Adverbials :—*

Adverb.
Adverbial Case $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{now represented by the mere Stem in nouns.} \\ \text{,,　　,,　　,,　　“objective case” in pronouns.} \end{array}\right.$
Adverbial Phrase $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{prepositional.} \\ \text{infinitival.} \\ \text{“Nominative absolute” construction.} \end{array}\right.$
Adverbial Clause.

31. A Word, *i.e.* 'a part of speech,' must in our analysis
be understood to include all sorts of compounds. Thus
frying-pan, coffee-mill, make-shift, day's-man, general-odd-job-
man, are taken as single nouns ;—snow-white, never-to-be-
forgotten, are taken as single adjectives ;—and now-a-days, in

order, all-of-a-heap, through-and-through, are taken as single
adverbs.

32. A Phrase may be generally described as a combination
of words, which, while conveying an Idea rest short of conveying
a Thought; *e.g.* 'before the house,' 'after writing to you,'
'singing songs,' 'spring having come.' Hence a phrase never
contains a finite verb.

Obs.—In such sentences as 'He spoke *of what you had done for him,*'
'I can give you no information *concerning who were there,*' we seem to have
a contradiction of the statement that a phrase never contains a finite verb;
but in analyzing the above sentences we take 'what' and 'who' as complex
relatives [§ 104] equivalent to 'that which' and 'those who.' Hence the
prepositions 'of' and 'concerning' do not govern the clauses, but only the
latent antecedents of the clauses. Again, in such sentences as 'I did it,
after that you departed,' 'He stood in her presence, *before that she knew of
his arrival,*' the words 'after' and 'before' are not prepositions, but sub-
ordinate conjunctions [§ 108] introducing adverbial clauses on a principle
explained in § 108, Obs. 2, 5. For more on this see § 104, Obs. 2.

33. A Clause may be regarded as a little sentence within a
big one; so that it invariably contains a finite verb.

Clauses may be tabulated as follows :—

$$
\text{Clauses} \begin{cases} \text{Co-ordinate main clauses.} \\ \text{Dependent} \begin{cases} \text{Substantival } i.e. \text{ Noun} & \text{Clauses.} \\ \text{Adjectival, } i.e. \text{ Relative} & \text{,,} \\ \text{Adverbial, } i.e. \text{ Subordinate} & \text{,,} \end{cases} \end{cases}
$$

but it must be remembered that one dependent clause may be
co-ordinate with another. When there is no ellipsis, a Co-
ordinate clause is marked by a co-ordinate conjunction. When
there is no ellipsis, a Dependent clause is usually marked

　by the demonstrative 'that,'　　if it be a noun clause.
　by a relative pronoun or adverb, if it be a relative clause.
　by a subordinate conjunction,　if it be a subordinate clause.

Obs.—Whenever a Sentence includes two or more little sentences, it is
convenient to describe not only the dependent, *but also the main sentences,*
as 'Clauses.' By so doing we leave the word 'Sentence' to express that

complete thought which is properly terminated by a full stop. Thus we shall speak of the complete Sentence 'Thomas went away, but John remained,' as consisting of two co-ordinate *main clauses*: and of the complete sentence 'I did it, because you asked me,' as consisting of a *main* and a *subordinate clause*.

34. The Direct and Oblique construction. We have already seen [§ 27] that the Thought expressed by a sentence invariably consists of an assertion, petition, or question. The Thought is usually independent, and expressed as coming *directly* from the thinker. When this is the case, we have that form of construction which is termed Direct.

The Thought is however sometimes dependent, inasmuch as it may form the subject, object, or complement, of a verb, or the apposite of a noun or pronoun. When thus used it may be either *quoted* or *described*. If Quoted, the direct construction remains, and the sentence so quoted may be included within inverted commas. But if Described, that, which formed the main clause in the direct construction, becomes a mere noun clause,—with perchance adjectival and adverbial clauses depending upon it. When a thought is thus "described," we have that form of construction which is termed Oblique.

The direct and oblique constructions are essentially different, although they may be accidentally similar,—especially when the tense of the direct clause happens to be of the same nature [*i.e.* primary or historic] as the tense of the verb on which the oblique clause depends. This essential difference and accidental resemblance of person and tense are best illustrated in the following table, where the three direct assertions 'I am going,' 'Thou art going,' 'He is going,' are cast into every possible oblique form, according to the altered stand-point of the speaker.

DIRECT ASSERTION.	"I am going."	"Thou art going."	"He is going."
PRIMARY TENSE. after a			
I say	that I am going	that thou art going	that he is going.
thou sayest	that thou art going	that I am going	that he is going.
he says	that he is going	that { I am going / thou art going }	that he is going.
HISTORIC TENSE. after an			
I said	that I was going	that thou wast going	that he was going.
thou saidest	that thou wast going	that I was going	that he was going.
he said	that he was going	that { I was going / thou wast going }	that he was going.

OBLIQUE ASSERTION

But in spite of accidental resemblance between an oblique and direct *assertion* or *petition*, it is only by an ellipsis of the 'that' that actual uncertainty arises. The difference between the oblique and direct *question* is generally, but not always, apparent in the arrangement of the words or in other ways. The following are illustrations of the transition of sentences of various kinds from the direct to the oblique construction.

DIRECT ASSERTION.	OBLIQUE ASSERTION.
Categorical.	*Categorical.*
I say (= assert) "I have done it."	I say [that] I have done it.
I said "Thou art mistaken."	I said that thou wast mistaken.
He said "I am weary."	He said that he was weary.
Hypothetical.	*Hypothetical.*
I say (= assert) "I may go, if—."	I say that I may go, if—.
I said "Thou canst go, if—."	I said that thou couldst go, if—.
I said "Thou couldst go, if—."	I said that thou couldst go, if—.
They said "He will go, if—."	They said that he would go, if—.

DIRECT PETITION.	OBLIQUE PETITION.
Categorical.	*Categorical.*
My petition is "Let [thou] me go."	My petition is that thou let me go.
My command is "Go."	My command is that thou go.
I intreat "Let [thou] him go."	I intreat that thou let him go.
Hypothetical.	*Hypothetical.*
I say [= command] "Thou must go."	I say that thou must go.
He said "Thou shalt die."	He said that I should die.
She said "Thou must come."	She said that I must come.

DIRECT QUESTION.	OBLIQUE QUESTION.
Categorical.	*Categorical.*
I ask "Do you like it?"	I ask whether you like it.
I asked "Is he clever?"	I asked if he was clever.
The question was "Is he to go?"	The question was whether he was to go.
He asked "Where is it?"	He asked where it was.
They enquired "How went the battle?"	They enquired how the battle went.
She asked "Who is there?"	She asked who was there.
He enquired "What do you say?"	He enquired what I was saying.

Hypothetical.	*Hypothetical.*
I ask "May I go, if—?"	I ask whether I may go, if—
I asked "Would he go, if—?"	I asked whether he would go, if—.
I asked "Canst thou go, if—?"	I asked if thou couldst go, if—.

Obs. 1.—The construction of all Main Clauses is direct, and the construction of all Noun Clauses is oblique. But this established usage is sometimes so completely transgressed that we find (a) an oblique construction used for a direct, and (β) a direct for an oblique, *e.g.* (a) "Paul whispered [to] Florence, as she wrapped him up before the door was opened. Did she hear them? Would she ever forget it? Was she glad to know it?" (Dickens) where the direct forms, 'Do you hear them? Will you ever forget it? Are you glad to know it?' ought to have been used ; (β) "And he answered that the people are fled," (A.V.) where the oblique form 'that the people were fled' ought to have been used.

Obs. 2.—As a rule the tense used in the oblique construction is primary or historic [§ 19], according to the nature of the tense of the verb on which the oblique clause depends, and not at all according to the nature of the tense used in the corresponding direct construction. From this we see that if the main verb be historic, the dependent oblique clause will also be historic, whether the direct construction be historic or primary. Thus, the tenses and moods possess a much more limited range in the oblique, than in the direct construction. For example, in the sentence 'She said that he would go,' it is quite impossible for us to tell whether '— he would go ' represents a direct construction in the Fut. Indic., or one in the Simple Potential ; *i.e.* whether it represents, ' He will go,' or ' He would go.'

Obs. 3.—Although the *direct* petition is necessarily confined to the 2nd person, yet our wishes are often expressed directly as to the 1st and 3rd persons. This is done under the form of an assertion or question, as ' He is to go!' ' Might I come?' In the *oblique* construction both of these may however be represented by petitions, thus ' I ordered that he should go,' and ' I begged that I might come.'

35. The Classification of Sentences in this book is as follows :—

A **Primary Sentence** or Clause is one which contains no more than is *essential* to the expression of a bare thought.

A **Simple Sentence** contains one primary sentence, with any *accidental* additions except subordinate clauses.

A **Complex Sentence** contains one primary sentence with

accidental additions consisting of one or more *subordinate clauses*.

A Compound Sentence contains two or more *primary clauses co-ordinated* together.

The examination of these four classes of sentences is to be found in the following sections :—

Primary Sentences	§ 36 to § 68.
Simple ,,	§ 69 to § 94.
Complex ,,	§ 95 to § 117.
Compound ,,	§ 118 to § 123.

THE PRIMARY SENTENCE.

36. The Primary Sentence is the nucleus, kernel, or skele-
ton, around which even the most expanded simple or complex
sentence is formed; and in consequence it exhibits nothing
which is not really *essential* to the complete expression of a
thought. In short, **a Primary Sentence is one which is
stripped bare of every accidental addition.** The very
first step, in analyzing the most expanded sentence, is to dis-
tinguish the primary sentence or sentences as they lie embedded
amidst the mass of words, phrases, and clauses, which directly
or remotely attach to their component parts.

The following sentences are Primary, inasmuch as no
separate word, phrase, or clause, can be omitted, without
making us sensible *that something is wanted*, in order to express
a *complete* thought. 'He runs'; 'He is king'; 'He is wise';
'He is in difficulties'; 'He ate bread'; 'He gave books to
her'; 'He said that the ship had sailed'; 'He begged that
the poor old man might be spared'; 'He asked who was at
home'; 'That he escaped is certain'; 'To tell lies is con-
temptible'; 'Studying art improves taste.'

The Subject of any Sentence.

37. Anything which has, or can be regarded as having, an
absolute [*i.e.* an independent] existence is a substantival. But
whatever exists can be spoken of as doing or being something.
Hence the Subject of a sentence is a substantival; and con-
versely *whatever can form the subject of a sentence is a substantival.*
A list of substantivals has already been given in § 30, so that it

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is only necessary now to give some illustrations of the various
kinds of subjects :—

Birds fly	Noun.
The good are happy	Adjective used absolutely.
Now is the time	Adverb used absolutely.
She won the prize	Pronoun.
To hear is to obey	Infinitive.
Seeing is believing	Gerund.
To steer a ship requires skill	⎫
Making faces is vulgar	⎬ Verbal noun phrases.
That he is gone is certain	⎫
That you should return was desired . . .	⎬ Oblique clauses.
How we are to succeed is a question . . .	⎭
" *How are we to succeed* " is a question .	⎫ Quotations.
" *Yankee Doodle* " was sung	⎭

Obs. 1.—The subject of a sentence is usually omitted in exclamations
and commands. In the former the subject is the first person, as '[I] would
that they were here!' In the latter the second person, as 'Look [thou],'
'Read [thou] it,' 'Depart [ye].'

Obs. 2.—'**Methinks**' and '**Methought**' are constructions which
call for explanation, as almost every one regards them as peculiar forms of
'I think' and 'I thought,'—which is not the case. 'I think' is from the
O.E. þencan = to think; whereas 'Methinks' is from the O.E. impersonal
verb þyncan = to seem, to appear, which was constructed with a dative
pronoun. Hence 'Methinks' = in O.E. 'Me þyncð' = in Latin 'Mihi
videtur' = in Modern English '— appears to me'; and 'Methought' =
'Me þúhte' = 'Mihi visum est' = '—appeared to me.' Thus in such
sentences as 'Methought I returned to the great hall,' (Addison) and 'Me
thinke I coulde gesse what myghte be sayed,' (Bp. Latimer) we shall
take 'Me' as an Indirect object, discharging a dative function; and the
Oblique clauses 'I returned, &c.' and 'I coulde gesse, &c.' as the Subjects
of the two sentences.

Obs. 3.—When used exclusively as a substantival, the Infinitive is not
a prepositional phrase; inasmuch as the 'to' is nothing more than a *mark*,
save when the infinitive discharges an adverbial function.

THE PREDICATE OF A PRIMARY SENTENCE.

38. A grammatical Predicate is that which asserts what
the subject of a sentence does or is. The only word, which

can without assistance form a predicate, is a finite Verb: and
no grammatical predicate can be formed without a finite verb.
Hence the most elementary type of predicate is one consisting
of a verb with nothing added, as

> The boy *runs.*
> Ships *sail.*
> Birds *fly.*

There are however many verbs [and also their Verbal-nouns
and Verbal-adjectives], which, in some or all of their various
shades of meaning, imply *too little* or *too much* to be capable of
fully expressing a thought [*i.e.* of forming a primary predicate]
without some addition. When verbs are deficient in meaning,
they require Complements; when they suggest or imply more
than they themselves express, they require Objects of various
kinds. There are however so many and such delicate varia-
tions of meaning in many verbs, that it is often difficult or
even impossible to determine with certainty the particular
classes of objects which are logically appropriate to the said
verbs. This degree of uncertainty, as to classification, is
nevertheless shared by grammar with every other natural
science. The many instances of uncertainty, which appear
from § 40 to § 56, should serve, not only to illustrate the fact
that grammar is an inexact science, but should also prepare
the student to understand how it is that other languages have
produced constructions differing from his own.

39. Complements are generally used after such verbs as
'Be,' 'Am,' 'Was,' 'Become,' 'Stand,' 'Continue, 'Remain,'
&c.,—which verbs, having formerly predicated the existence of
the subject, can now be used without predicating anything at
all. When these verbs make no predication, they require to
be complemented by substantivals, adjectivals, or adverbials,
whose original nature appears as soon as we restore to the
verb its original meaning. Thus, the substantivals are found
to have originated in co-ordinating apposites [§ 73]; the

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adjectivals in co-ordinating attributes [§ 77]; and the ad-
verbials in what were simply adverbials limiting the asserted
Existence,—usually in respect of place.   For example, as
originally used,

> He is a king = He exists, and is a king.
> He is good   = He exists, and is good.
> He is here   = He exists here.

But as now generally used, these verbs are mere links or
Copulas uniting the Subject to the Complement.   And the
copula and complement with its belongings, taken together,
form the *grammatical*[1] predicate.   For more on this, see § 22.

We have thus three great classes of complements, viz.

> 1. Substantivals as Complementary apposites.
> 2. Adjectivals   ,,   ,,   attributes.
> 3. Adverbials   ,,   ,,   adverbials.

The following is an almost exhaustive series of illustrations,
arranged in connection with the lists of substantivals, adjectivals,
and adverbials contained in § 30.

Subject.	Copula.	Complement.	
Thou	art	the man.	*Noun.*
These	are	the aged.	
She	is	the darker.	
He	is	the best.	*Adjectivals used as Substantivals.*
This	is	the one.	
He	is	the second.	
They	are	the many.	
That	is	he.	*Pronoun.*
To hear	is	to obey.	*Infinitive.*
Seeing	is	believing.	*Gerund.*
The story	is	that the monks have fled.	
The command	was	that we should go.	*Noun Clauses.*
The question	is	how we are to manage it.	
The song	was	"We won't go home till morning."	*Quotation.*

(left margin: Substantival Complements.)

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[1] The *logical* predicate answers to a substantival complement and its
belongings without the copula.   See § 5.

	Subject.	Copula.	Complement.	
Adjectival Complements.	These	are	aged.	*Adjectives.*
	She	is	darker.	
	He	is	best.	
	The thing	is	this.	*Adjective pronouns.*
	The book	is	mine.	
	This	is	one.	*Numeral adjectives.*
	He	is	second.	
	They	were	many.	
	The hat	is	Tom's.	*Genitive case.*
	The wind	is	blowing.	
	The man	is	exhausted.	*Participles.*
	The yacht	is	beaten.	
	He	was	cutting wood.	*Participial phrase.*
	The house	was	of stone.	*Adj. prep. phrase.*
Adverbial Complements.	The cow	is	there.	*Adverbs.*
	It	is	all-of-a-heap.	
	The struggle	was	for the cannon.	
	The letter	is	from France.	
	The man	is	with father.	*Prepositional phrases.*
	The picture	was	by him.	
	We	are	at home.	
	A horse	is	for riding.	*Prepositional phrases made*
	He	is	a-hunting.	*with prep. c. gerund.*
	The ship	is	a-sinking.	
	The boy	was	to go.	
	I	am	to stay.	
	They	are	to be burnt.	*Infinitival phrases made*
	This	is	to be painted	*with prep. c. infinitive.*
	We	are	to oppose them.	
	She	is	to call the dog.	
	The man	was	as I told you.	
	The accident	was	after you left.	*Adverbial clauses.*
	The book	is	where you left it.	

Obs. 1.—The above sequence of the subj. cop. and comp. is by no
means fixed, e.g —

<blockquote>
Art   (cop.) thou (subj.) the man (comp.)?
Mine (comp.) is   (cop.) the book (subj.)
How   (comp.) is   (cop.) that   (subj.)?
Is   (cop.) there (comp.) a cow   (subj.)?
There (comp.) is   (cop.) a cow   (subj.)
</blockquote>

Obs. 2.—The most curious of all the adverbial complements is the

local adverb '**There.**' United with the copula it is equivalent to a predication of Existence, and especially of a definite local Existence. Thus, 'There is a strange tale that the monks, &c.' = 'A strange tale exists, viz. that the monks, &c.' 'There is a cow in the field' = 'A cow exists in the field.'

Obs. 3.—Although it is of importance for the student to observe that many of our tenses [§ 19] consist of a copula and complement, yet he will do well in his analysis to treat such periphrastic combinations as if they formed a single word.

Obs. 4.—The Infinitive and Gerund of the copula verb, *i.e.* **to be** and **being,** may appear as subject, copula, or complement; but it is well to leave the consideration of this to the sections devoted to the full consideration of these verbal nouns; see §§ 57—64.

40. By the **Cognate Object** of a Verb [1] grammarians generally mean an object consisting of the noun contained in the verb : but in our analysis we shall extend the term so as to give it a syntactical as well as an etymological value.

Every verb contains a noun, inasmuch as we can always name the act or state which is predicated by a verb. This "noun of the verb" can always be expressed by a verbal-noun, and not infrequently by what is merely a noun. Thus the Contained noun in

	Gerund.	*Infinitive.*	*Noun.*
Exists	is existing,	or to exist,	or an existence.
Sleeps	is sleeping,	or to sleep,	or a sleep.
Walks	is walking,	or to walk,	or a walk.
Lives	is living,	or to live,	or a life.
Weighs	is weighing,	or to weigh,	or a weight.
Measures	is measuring,	or to measure,	or a measure.
Plays	is playing,	or to play,	or a play.
Sings	is singing,	or to sing,	or a song.
Gives	is giving,	or to give,	or a gift.
Asserts	is asserting,	or to assert,	or an assertion.
Petitions	is petitioning,	or to petition,	or a petition.
Questions	is questioning,	or to question,	or a question.

[1] The adjective 'worth' is completed by a cognate object, see § 66.

But a contained noun, like any other noun, may have an apposite.   Thus the apposite of

> a sleep may be the sleep of death.
> a life   „   a life of toil.
> a weight   „   a ton.
> a gift   „   a book.
> an assertion „   that he is gone.
> a petition   „   that she will come.
> a question   „   how you are.

Such apposites, like all other apposites, have the effect of limiting the noun's range of application.   Hence if they be added to the verb, in which the noun is still embedded, they have the immediate effect of limiting the verb's range of application.   And the substantival, *which would stand in apposition to the contained noun if it were extracted from the verb*, is called the Cognate Object in this book, although the name is also applied in a stricter sense to an object consisting of the contained noun itself, *e.g.* ' I have fought *the fight.*'

A cognate object may occur after any kind of verb—active passive or neuter—transitive or intransitive, *e.g.*

He struck the horse [*direct object*] a blow [*cognate object*].
He taught[1] the boy [*dir. obj.*] music [*cog. obj.*].
He sang a ballad [*cog. obj.*].
He ran a race [*cog. obj.*].
He slept the-sleep-of-the-just [*cog. obj.*].

The cognate object of an active verb is frequently used as the subject of the passive verb.   Such a construction is quite grammatical, but very illogical, as a single example will show.

[1] 'To teach' = to cause to learn, to instruct, and is properly followed by a direct object ; but, if it means ' to give information,' then it will be completed by an indirect (*dat.*) object, *e.g.* 'Music was taught *to him.*' The direct is, however, the standard construction, and is to be seen in O.E., where the verb 'læran' = to teach, takes the acc. of the person taught.

Thus, when we say 'Music was taught,' we speak good grammar
and are understood; but we have nevertheless said what is
logically absurd, inasmuch as it was not the Music which was
instructed, but certain unnamed Pupils, who alone could form
the logical subject of the passive verb. The same illogical
character may be detected, although less readily, in such sen-
tences as, 'The race was run'; 'A song was sung'; 'A sermon
was preached'; 'A story was related'; 'That he still lived
was asserted'; 'That he should go was commanded'; 'How
they marched was enquired'; inasmuch as none of these
grammatically passive subjects are really being *acted upon*, but
rather are *themselves the action*, for

The race	is the same thing as the	running.
The song	,, ,, ,,	singing.
The sermon	,, ,, ,,	preaching.
The story	,, ,, ,,	relation.
That he still lived	,, ,, ,,	assertion.
That he should go	,, ,, ,,	command.
How they marched	,, ,, ,,	inquiry.

Obs.—The test question, which best serves to distinguish the Cognate
object from all other objects, is, Does it tell in what the contained noun
consists? Thus, in 'He sang *a hymn*,' 'He played *a waltz*,' 'He ran
a race,' 'He learned *grammar*,' 'He taught *music*,' 'He constructed
a box,' 'He does *love*,' 'He said *that you were here*,' 'He begged *that you
would go*,' 'He asked *how you were*,' the words and clauses placed in italics
are all cognate objects, for we can say—

The singing	consisted in	a hymn.
The playing	,,	a waltz.
The running	,,	a race.
The learning	,,	grammar.
The teaching	,,	music.
The construction	,,	a box.
The doing	,,	loving.
The saying	,,	that you were here.
The begging	,,	that you would go.
The asking	,,	how you were.

41. Verbs involving the categorical or hypothetical Assertion of a fact, feeling, or opinion, are commonly followed by a Cognate object, consisting of an oblique assertion.[1] There is an assertion of fact in such verbs as *say = assert, deny, grant, write, acknowledge, confess, promise, vow, &c.*; an assertion of perception in such verbs as *perceive, feel, see, hear, observe, discern, &c.*; and of opinion in such verbs as *suppose, expect, anticipate, reckon, deem, think, judge, doubt, believe, fear, dread, will, wish, desire, need, hope, remember, understand, learn, know, determine, resolve, &c.* After such verbs the cognate objective clause tells us in what consists the assertion, denial, writing, promise, perception, observation, supposition, thought, belief, wish, knowledge, determination, &c. &c.

Verbs involving a **Petition** are commonly followed by a Cognate object, consisting of an oblique petition. The verbs, *say = command, exhort, entreat, ask = beg, petition, request, beseech, &c.* have such an oblique clause, serving to tell us in what consists the command, petition, request, &c.

Verbs involving a **Question** are commonly followed by a Cognate object, consisting of an oblique question. The verbs, *ask = inquire, question, &c.* have such an oblique clause, serving to tell us in what consists the enquiry, question, &c.

Obs. 1.—When the subject of any one of these oblique clauses has been anticipated in the subject, object, or indirect object, of the verb on which the clause depends, the finite verb of the said clause is sometimes turned into an infinitive, *e.g.* 'I hope *that I may go'* = I hope *to go.* 'He begged of you *that you would go'* = He begged of you *to go.* 'She asked *whom she should send'* = She asked *whom to send.*

Obs. 2.—The oblique assertion and petition are occasionally represented by the standard classical construction known as the "**Acc. c. Infin.**" [*i.e.* accusative with infinitive]. This construction most probably originated in the contraction of a clause [see Obs. 1] whose subject had been anticipated by the object [acc.] of the main verb, *e.g.* 'I knew *him* that *he* was bold' = I knew him to be bold ; but it is not possible idiomatically to restore every acc. c. infin. to this supposed original form, *e.g.* we cannot

[1] They include many Factitive verbs, see § 43.

very well replace 'I wish the ship to go,' by 'I wish the ship that it should go.' In the acc. c. infin. construction the "acc." represents what would be the *subject* of the fully expressed clause; hence, if we encounter an acc. *governed* by the infinitive, we have no true instance of an acc. c. infin. construction, *e.g.* in 'He asked *whom to send*,' the word 'whom' is an acc. and the 'to send' is an infin., but they do not form an 'acc. c. infin.,' because 'whom' is governed by 'to send.' As however the object of an active verb becomes the subject of a passive, we see that by turning an active infinitive into a passive infinitive we may produce a genuine acc. c. infin., *e.g.* 'His lord commanded to sell him' = His lord commanded *him to be sold* = that he should be sold.

Obs. 3.—Except when the infinitive is in the passive voice, an acc. c. infin. seems almost an impossibility after a verb of petition. The reason for this lies in the evident fact that the persons, *to* whom petitions are addressed or *from* whom something is asked, are in reality nothing more than *indirect objects*, discharging the functions of a dative or ablative, and therefore not of an accusative. But though we must never treat them as otherwise than indirect objects in our analysis of modern English, yet we must not overlook the fact that, in spite of the logical absurdity, O E. was not always consistent as to the essentially indirect regimen of the persons addressed in a petition [§ 54]. Thus in the two following examples the same verb 'Hét' = he commanded, is firstly followed by a dative and secondly by an accusative case;—'Hét þám sin-hiwum [*dat.*] wæstmas fédan,' (Cædmon) = He commanded *to the pairs* to produce fruits; 'He hét þá menegu [*acc.*] þæt hí, &c.,' A.S.V. = He commanded *the multitude* that they, &c. But that, in spite of such anomalies, we are now justified in analyzing in accordance with logical considerations is borne out by many such passages as, 'He beád him [*dat.*], þæt hí hit nánum men ne sædon,' A.S.V. = 'He comaundide *to hem* [i.e. *to them*], that thei schulden seye to no man.'—Wycliffe, Mark vii. 36.

Obs. 4.—If I describe the *purport* of my petition, I thereby declare my *purpose* in making the petition. But while the purport constitutes a cognate object, the purpose constitutes an adverbial [final] clause. Hence it is not surprising that *the construction of the oblique petition is frequently borrowed from the adverbial clause* expressive of final cause or purpose. Thus in Latin both are constructed with "ut c. Subj ;" and even in O.E. and modern English the "that" which introduces the oblique petition is almost replaceable by an "in order that." [See § 112, Obs. 1.]

42. There are verbs which, although involving no assertion or petition, are nevertheless made [somewhat illogically] to receive a Cognate object, consisting of a noun clause. Such

are verbs expressive of Emotion, *e.g. rejoice, sorrow, fear, wonder, am surprised, am astonished, am blamed, am concerned, &c.* We are constrained to classify the clauses following these verbs as cognate objects for two reasons. First, they are not direct objects because they remain when the verb is in the passive voice, *e.g.* ' I am surprised that you are here.' Secondly, they are not indirect objects, because they often discharge the functions of a nominative, *e.g.* ' That you are here surprises me.' But though we reckon these objects as cognate, *they approach very near to adverbial clauses*, as is seen in the following observation.

Obs.—The cognate object following on a verb of Emotion approximates closely to an adverbial of Initial Cause. This arises from the fact that the nature of an emotion, though not logically identical with its cause, is yet sufficiently revealed by the mention of the cause, *e.g.* ' I rejoice *that he is safe*' = ' I rejoice *because he is safe*.'

43. Verbs expressive of Production or Effect are called **Factitives** [facere = to make] because they contain the idea of Making, by deed, *e.g. create, produce, make, form, invent, write, paint, effect, cause,*[1] *&c. &c.* by word, *e.g. report, proclaim, declare, describe, prove, &c. &c.* and by thought, *e.g. judge, take, esteem, elect, select, choose, &c. &c.* All such verbs, when they are used in their factitive sense, are usually followed by a cognate object telling in what the production or effect consists [but see § 47]. A factitive may however do one of two very different things. It may either tell of *making something* or of making something *to be or to do something.* In the former case the factitive verb will be followed by only a cognate object; in the latter the active factitive will be followed by both a direct and a cognate object, and the passive factitive by only the

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[1] Although a Cause and an Effect are very different things, yet the verb ' to cause' has much the same force as ' to effect.' Thus there is grammatically no difference between ' I *caused* that,' and ' I *effected* that.'

cognate object,—the direct object of the active voice having become the subject of the passive.   Thus

> He made *the table* [*cog.*].
> He made *the table* [*dir.*] *to be round* [*cog.*].
> The table [*subject*] was made *to be round* [*cog.*].
> She caused [= effected] *mischief* [*cog.*].
> She caused [= made] *mischief* [*dir.*] *to arise* [*cog.*].
> Mischief [*subj.*] was caused *to arise* [*cog.*] by her.

Obs. 1.—These two uses imply a slight change in the meaning of the same verb. Thus, in 'He made the table,' the verb 'made' = constructed; whereas, in 'He made the table to be round,' the verb 'made' = cut, carved, or some other transitive act.   See § 47.

Obs. 2.—Usage prevents us from affording instances of the same constructions after every factitive; but generally speaking the cognate object is a noun, pronoun, infinitive, or an oblique assertion [see § 41]. The infinitive is almost always that of the copula; hence it almost always requires to be completed by a Complement. But as the complement is in reality the completion of the copula, both copula and complement must be taken as together forming one cognate object.

Obs. 3.—The absence of the 'to be' often causes this cognate object to be represented by nothing save a complement. *i.e.* a co-ordinating apposite or attribute [§ 22]. When this apposite or attribute is in agreement with the subject of a passive main verb, we have the phenomenon of **a cognate object in the nominative!** *e.g.* 'The table was made round [*nom.*]. The peculiarity of this construction has induced some grammarians to take many Factitive verbs as copulas, and hence to analyze the above sentence thus, 'The table [*subject*] was made [*copula*] round [*complement*].' We however shall take such nominatives either as cognate objects, or as co-ordinating apposites and attributes.

44. Verbs expressive of Naming [*e.g.* name, call, &c.] are usually followed by a cognate object telling in what the name consists. If this cognate object be a Quotation, the name will of course appear as in the nominative; if not, it will stand as in the objective [acc.] case. Inasmuch as we have now lost, the distinctive case-endings of the nominative and accusative it is only by a reference to O.E. that we can put the English usage in this respect to the test. From this source we learn

that **the cognate object after a verb of naming is a quotation,** *i.e.* is in the nominative, *e.g.* ' þone un-ge-met líce eargan þú miht hátan hara [*nom.*]' = The immoderately timid thou mayest call *Hare.*

45. Many other verbs are, at least in some of their shades of meaning, completed by **a cognate object consisting of a Noun or Pronoun.**

Such is the case with verbs of Giving, *e.g. give, grant, contribute, pay, inflict,* &c. ; with verbs of Gaining, *e.g. gain, acquire, purchase,* &c. ; verbs of Possessing, *e.g. possess, hold, contain,* &c. ; verbs of Measuring, *e.g. measure, weigh,* &c. ; and with various other groups. All these may be completed by a cognate object telling in what the gift, gain, possession, measurement, or weight, consists.

But by a very slight change in meaning many of these verbs become transitive, and are completed by a direct object, as is seen in the following examples :—

I paid a shilling [*cog.*].	I paid the servant [*dir.*].
He holds the estate [*cog.*].	He holds the reins [*dir.*].
You measure six feet [*cog.*].	You measure the field [*dir.*].
That machine weighs a ton [*cog.*].	That machine weighs sugar [*dir.*].
I painted the picture [*cog.*].	I painted the door [*dir.*] green.
We made the garden [*cog.*].	We made the garden [*dir.*] gay.
He questions if we are right [*cog.*].	He questions the prisoner [*dir.*].

46. The **Cognate object slides into an adverbial or an Indirect object** after verbs expressive of a Duration Course, Progress, or Direction, *e.g. endure, continue, live, walk run, sail, go, &c.* That the completion of such verbs may be regarded as cognate objects is clear, inasmuch as such objects tell us in what the duration, course, progress, or direction consists : but that they are also of an adverbial nature is equally evident, inasmuch as they tell us of the Time or Place of an action. Hence we shall find it best to speak of them

either as Indirect objects or as Adverbials [discharging an Adverbial Accusative function], according as we feel them to be essential or accidental additions to a verb. The student will experience no difficulty in distinguishing this kind of accusative from others, inasmuch as it always admits of the addition of such prepositions as ' during,' ' through,' ' along,' ' towards,' &c. Thus

' He remained [during] *a year.*' ' He lived [through] *a century.*' ' He walked [along] *the deck.*' ' He paced [along] *the street.*' ' He ran [along] *the course.*' ' He sailed [along] *the sea.*' ' He will go [towards] *home.*'

O.E. ' Hig prý dagas [*acc.*] mid me wunodon.' A.S.V. = They continued *three days* with me.

' He gazed *the sky.*' Milton.

47. A Cognate object is often replaced by an Indirect object [§ 52], as might be inferred from what has been said in § 41, Obs. 4, and § 42, Obs.

Thus verbs of petition are sometimes completed by either a cognate or an indirect object, *e.g.* ' I begged *that he would give me a shilling* [*cog.*].' ' I begged *to the end that I might get a shilling* [*ind.*].' ' I begged *for a shilling* [*ind.*].'

Thus, again, some verbs of desire, &c., when completed by a clause, will have a cognate object; and, when by a phrase, an indirect object; *e.g.* ' I wish *that I may be satisfied* [*cog.*]' ; ' I wish *for satisfaction* [*ind.*].'

Thus, again, a factitive verb may have its cognate object replaced by an indirect object telling of effect, likeness, or substitution, *e.g.* ' He made the table *round* [*cog.*].' He made the table *so that it was round* [*ind.*].' ' We counted him *to be a fool* [*cog.*].' We counted him *as if he were a fool* [*ind.*].' ' We counted him *for a fool* [*ind.*].'

48. A Cognate object is often replaced by a direct object. This is especially common after verbs of Perception, *e.g. perceive, see, hear, feel, &c.* An uncertainty as to the

nature of an object must always exist when that object serves simultaneously to indicate in what the act consists, and on what the act is exercised. But a close consideration of the question seems to lead to the conclusion that while the noun-clause which follows a verb of perception is cognate [see § 41], the noun or pronoun which follows it is usually direct. In other words, that while the clause tells in what the perception consists, the noun or pronoun usually tell on what the perceptive faculty is exercising itself. Hence in 'He perceived *that you were mistaken*' and 'He perceived *a storm*' we shall take the former object as cognate and the latter as direct. Such functional transitions are almost certain indications of a changed shade of meaning in a verb. [See also § 50.]

49. The Direct Object is that on which an action operates, exercises, or expends itself. Hence it can only occur after such active verbs [and their verbal nouns and participles] as imply the exercise of an active energy on something. Such verbs are called **Transitives**, whereas all others [whether active, passive, or neuters] are called **Intransitives**. But both the direct object of a transitive and the logical subject of a passive verb represent that on which the action operates ; hence we can always turn a sentence from an active to a passive form, by using the direct object of the former as the subject of the latter, thus

He broke *the lock*   = *The lock* was broken by him.
He killed *the lion*   = *The lion* was killed by him.
He struck *the boy*   = *The boy* was struck by him.
He worshipped *God* = *God* was worshipped by him.

Obs. 1.—With Reflexive verbs [see Self-affecting verbs, § 21] the direct object is identical with the subject, inasmuch as the subject is represented as affecting itself, *e.g.* 'I bethink *me.*' 'The young lions ..lay *them* down in their dens.'—A.V.

Obs. 2.—The student will generally have little difficulty in distinguishing a direct from a cognate object, if he uses the following test questions:— On what is the action exercised? In what does the action consist? The former gives the direct, the latter the cognate object. It may also be observed that a direct object never occurs after a passive or neuter verb, never occurs after a complement, unless the complement be a transitive verbal-noun or verbal adjective, and never has a preposition governing it.

50. Direct objects are often omitted or replaced by cognate or by indirect objects, when the same verb has both transitive and intransitive shades of meaning [See §§ 45, 47, 48]. It is in fact perfectly impossible to make two lists of verbs, and to say, This one consists of transitives, and That one consists of intransitives. All depends upon the shade of meaning. Thus it is impossible to say whether the verb 'ride' is transitive or intransitive, and we can say with perfect propriety

'He *rides* the horse [*trans.*].' 'He is out *riding* [*intrans.*].'

Again, who can classify the verb 'believe,' when we see it completed in three different ways, as, 'He believes *the Creed* [*cog. obj.*].' 'He believes *God* [*dir. obj.*].' 'He believes *in you* [*ind. obj.*].'

The difficulty of classification increases as we go back to earlier times and find such constructions, as, 'Blessed are they that hunger and thirst *righteousness*,' *Wycliffe*. 'He tempted *the boy* [*gen. in O.E.*].' 'He kept *the book* [*gen. in O.E.*].' 'He needed *help* [*gen. in O.E.*].' 'He served *God* [*dat. in O.E.*].' 'He pleased *the king* [*dat. in O.E.*].'

51. A direct object and a cognate object sometimes occur after the same verb. This phenomenon is known in classical grammars as the "Double Accusative." In modern English this double object is found for instance after the verbs *strike* and *teach*, as

He struck *the horse* [*dir.*] *a blow* [*cog.*].
He taught *the boy* [*dir.*] *geography* [*cog.*].

When the direct object becomes the subject of the passive verb, the cognate object remains to the perplexity of those who have failed to draw a distinction between a cognate and a direct object. Thus we say 'The horse was struck *a blow* [*cog.*]'; 'The boy was taught *geography* [*cog.*].'

52. Indirect Objects [as we understand them in this book [1]] consist of any Adverbials,—words, phrases, or clauses,—which may be essential to the full expression of the verbal notion, *e.g.* 'I heard the thunder [*cog. or dir.*] *roll, rolling, arolling, when it was rolling* [*ind.*].' 'She gave a loaf [*cog.*] *to him* [*ind.*].' 'He had begged *for food* [*ind.*] *from her* [*ind.*].' 'They escaped *from the sword* [*ind.*].' 'We escaped *from drowning* [*ind.*].' 'He kept us [*dir.*] *from falling* [*ind.*].' 'The accident deprived him [*dir.*] *of sight* [*ind.*].' They accused him [*dir.*] *of ambition* [*ind.*].' 'The city was reduced *to ashes* [*ind.*].' 'I dealt *with the grocer* [*ind.*].' 'He arose *from sleep* [*ind.*].'

Obs.—A few predicative adjectives, such as like, unlike, likely, unlikely, are followed by adverbials essential to their meaning, and to such adverbials we allow the name of Indirect objects. See § 66.

53. Indirect objects often consist of a mere noun or pronoun; so that, at first sight, it is difficult to recognise them as adverbials. Such nouns and pronouns however discharge the functions of, and actually represent, adverbial cases; although the old case endings have generally been rubbed off during the lapse of many centuries. A noun or pronoun discharging the adverbial function of an indirect object almost always admits of the addition of a preposition before it. Thus

[1] And also in Morell's *Grammar*. The term 'Indirect' is sometimes limited to the Dative completion of a verb, expressive of the Remoter Object affected by such acts, as, giving, telling, &c. We however think it best to make a familiar term cover a large class of phenomena, which require to be labelled in some sort of way.

'He gave [*to*] *her* a loaf.' 'He asked [*for*] *bread* from her.'
'He escaped [*from*] *the sword*.' 'He departed [*from*] *this life*.'

Obs.—The student must not expect that these prepositions afford an invariable clue by which to discover the O.E. case. The shades of meaning contained in the verb have frequently changed to so great an extent, that the case or preposition, which was once appropriate, has now become completely inapplicable. Thus, while we now say 'I wonder *at-you*,' in O.E. the sentence would be 'I wonder *of-you*.' And even more recently we find, 'I am independent *on-you*' becoming 'I am independent *of-you*.'

54. Verbs of petition [*e.g.* petition, beg, command, &c.] often have indirect objects telling *to whom* the petition is made or *from whom* the thing is sought. Usage, or the reminiscence of some former shade of meaning, occasionally precludes the addition of a preposition to some of these indirect objects, or has even left them in O.E. to be sometimes expressed by an accusative [§ 41, Obs. 3]; but in absence of any adverbial case inflections in modern English, we shall, on a mere logical ground, do well always to classify the person, *to* whom the petition is made or *from* whom the thing is sought, as an indirect object,—discharging a dative or ablative function. Thus, 'I commanded *him* [= to him] to go.' 'I beg *of you* [= from you] that they may come.'

Obs.—When the person indicated by this indirect object happens to be the same person as forms the subject of the cognate noun clause, the cognate noun clause is usually contracted into an infinitive with its belongings, as, 'I beg of-you that you will come home' = I beg of-you to come home. 'I command [to] you that you should go' = I command [to] you to go.

55. We often speak of perceiving Something to be in a state of action. Hence verbs of Perception, *e.g. perceive, detect, see, feel, hear, &c.*, are often followed by an adverbial, serving to indicate the sphere of action in which the said Something is for the time being as it were located, *e.g.* 'I saw the house *fall* [= *a-falling*].' 'The house was seen *to fall* [*a-falling*, or, as it fell].'

These adverbials are by some grammarians all classed as Indirect objects : but we shall not class them so, unless they are essential to the meaning of the verb.   Looked at in this light, the only verbs of perception, which clearly imply that their subject or object is in a certain sphere, are the verbs of hearing,—for it is of course impossible to hear anything, unless it is in a sphere of action, viz. of noise-making.   Hence **verbs of hearing are completed by an Indirect object**, *e.g.* ' I heard him [*dir.*] *sing* [*ind.*].'   ' She was heard *a-sobbing* [*ind.*].'   ' We heard the lion [*dir.*] *when it roared* [*ind.*].'

Obs.—The sequence of an accusative and infinitive in such sentences as, ' I saw *the ship sink*,' ' I heard *the thunder roll*,' is sometimes taken as an illustration of the classical acc. c. infin. construction [§ 41, Obs. 2] ; but we cannot so regard it, inasmuch as we do not consider ' I saw *the ship sink* [*i.e.* as it sank]' to be exactly the same thing as ' I saw *that the ship sank*.'

56. Verbs of giving, *e.g. give, bestow, impart, send, &c.;* of receiving, *e.g. receive, obtain, acquire, &c.;* of association, *e.g. associate, company, &c.;* are usually followed by an Indirect object of the person *to* whom something is given, *from* whom something is received, or *with* whom something is performed, as ' I gave the book [cog.] to him [indirect].'   ' I received the letter [cog.] from her [ind.].'   ' I associate with gentlemen [ind.].'

Obs.—There are many other verbs, unmentioned here, which are followed by indirect objects.   In fact any adverbial which supplies a latent implication of place, time, cause, or manner, in the meaning of the verb, is an Indirect object.   Thus the verb ' give ' implies a [dative] recipient ; the verb ' receive ' implies an [ablative] source; the verb ' associate ' implies a companion; the verb ' depart ' implies an [ablative] starting-point ; and so on.

57. The **Infinitive** [see §§ 25, 85] is a verbal-noun capable of discharging a limited number of case functions. What these case functions may be, is best discovered by replacing the infinitive by a gerund in accordance with the following table :—

		Infinitive.	*Gerund.*
Nom.	. .	to shout	shouting.
Acc.	. .	[to] shout	shouting.
Dat.	. .	[for] to shout . . .	to or for shouting.
Loc.	. .	shout	a-shouting.

Thus if ' to shout ' can [without an ellipsis] be replaced by ' shouting ' it must be either discharging a nominative or accusative function ; if it be replaced by ' to or for shouting,' it may be taken as discharging a dative function ; and if replaced by a-shouting, it may be taken as discharging a locative function.

Obs.—The student may generally distinguish the Nom. and Acc. Gerund from a participle, by seeing if he can replace it by an infinitive.

58. The Infinitive serves as the Subject of a sentence, or it would not be a substantival. It is then discharging the function of a nominative, as ' *To hear* is to obey.'

59. The Infinitive serves as the Complement of the copula verb, as ' To hear is *to obey* '

60. The Infinitive serves as a Cognate Object after many verbs. It is then discharging the function of an accusative, as ' She was taught *to dance.*' ' He does *love.*' ' Let him *go.*' ' His lord commanded *to sell* him ' = in O.E. ' Hine hét his hláford gesyllan.'

61. The Infinitive sometimes serves as a Direct Object, as ' She liked to ride.' ' We commenced to study.' ' Then begin ye to say ' = in O.E. ' þonne ongynne ge cweðan.'

62. The Infinitive often serves as an Indirect Object. It is then almost always discharging the functions of a dative or of a locative case [but see § 85].

When discharging a dative function, it has often replaced a cognate object, and tells the purpose instead of the purport of

an act [§ 47], as 'And Pharisees ... preiden hym *for to shewe*...'
Wycliffe = And the Pharisees ... prayed him *to shew*. 'When
he hadde commandid the companye *for to sitte*' *Wycliffe* =
When he had commanded the company *to sit*.' ঽ

When discharging a locative function, it usually tells the
sphere of action within which, and by means of which, some
object is perceived, as 'I heard him *shout*.' 'We heard him
say' = in O.E. 'We gehýrdon hine secgan.'

63. We have in the above sections seen the infinitives of
various verbs used as the subjects, complements, cognate
objects, direct objects, and indirect objects, of some finite
verb ; and we now observe that the infinitive of the copula
verb forms no exception to other infinitives, and may therefore
be used in just the same way. The one peculiarity of this
verb arises from that loss of meaning, which obliges it to
be completed by a complement. Thus in 'To be healthy is
to be happy.' 'He commanded them *to be quiet*.' 'She began
to be funny.' 'He was perceived *to be ill*,' the infinitive 'to
be' would be the real subject, complement, cognate, direct,
or indirect object, if it were not for its loss of meaning. As
it is, we must take the infinitive *along with its complement*, as
discharging those various functions. Thus, 'To be healthy
[*subject*] is [*copula*] to be happy' [*complement*]. And in the
same way we must avoid separating the 'to be' from those
participial complements, by the union of which we express
the different tenses of the infinitive [§ 25].

Obs.—There is no connection between the case function of the infinitive
and the case function of the complement. The case of the former depends
upon the governing verb, the case of the latter depends upon that of the
noun or pronoun with which it is in apposition or attribution. Although
our case system has almost disappeared, yet it is well to allow ourselves to
speak of 'agreement,' just as if the marks of that agreement still re-
mained. The agreement of the complement of the infinitive is with
that noun or pronoun, which serves to indicate what *would be* the

subject of the copula, if that copula were *put* into a finite tense. Thus, in

I try			an artist,
I hope			successful,
They ordered him	}	to be {	quick,
They asked of him			attentive,
They wrote to him			obedient,
They longed for him			a soldier,

'artist' and 'successful' agree with 'I'; and 'quick,' 'attentive,' 'obedient,' 'a soldier,' agree with him; according as the 'I' or 'him' indicates the subject of the copula when it becomes finite, as

> *I* try that *I* may be an artist.
> *I* hope that *I* may be successful.
> They longed for *him* that *he* might be a soldier, &c. &c.

The student may also at once discover the person or thing with which the complement agrees by asking, a Who or When question, thus—

Who or What			an artist?	*Ans.*	I.
,,	,,		successful?	,,	I,
,,	,,	is {	quick?	,,	He.
,,	,,		attentive?	,,	He.
,,	,,		obedient?	,,	He.
,,	,,		a soldier?	,,	He.

64. The Infinitive is regularly used after the Auxiliary verbs in the formation of many of our periphrastic tenses. Thus 'love' is an infinitive, although without the 'to,' in 'I may, can, shall, or will *love*.' These auxiliary verbs had at some time such a clear and definite meaning,[1] that it would have been tolerably easy to determine the case function discharged by the infinitive; but these verbs, after passing through various shades of meaning, have at last become little more than con-

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[1] Thus we can get back to very early times, when 'may' = to be great or powerful, 'can' = to know, 'shall' = to owe, 'will' = to choose. With these senses 'may' would probably be followed by a locative infinitive, and the rest most probably by an accusative infinitive.

ventional symbols, so that it would be worse than useless to
attempt to analyze these periphrastic tenses of our moods.

65. The **Interrogatives** consist of certain pronouns,
adjectives, and adverbs.   For the sake of convenience we will
consider all these under the primary sentence,—although the
interrogative adjective, and non-essential interrogative adverb,
fall strictly speaking within the range of the simple sentence.

The interrogatives may appear in either a direct or oblique
question.

The Direct Question is fully illustrated towards the close of
this section and also in § 34.

The Oblique Question is properly considered under the
head of the primary sentence, as it may constitute either the
subject, object, or complement of a main verb. It is, how-
ever, an unnecessary construction inasmuch as its place may
be taken by a quotation of the direct question.   The oblique
is a much more recent construction than the direct question,
and most probably arose out of a special use of the complex
relative clause, with which it is so closely allied in English that
they are often indistinguishable (see § 104, Obs. 1).   It is
easy to see how the following O.E. complex relative clauses
would become oblique questions whenever they happened to
be used after verbs of inquiry:—

'Ne rǽdde ge hwæt Dauid dyde?' = Have ye not read what
[= that which] David did?

'We nú ge-hýrað hwær ús hearm-stafas wráðe on-wócon'
(Cædmon) = We now hear where [= the place where] to us
evil sorrows up-sprang.

'Warniað hú ge gehýran' = Beware how [= the way that]
ye hear.

The various case functions discharged by the interrogatives,
—whether in union or not with other words,—may be tabulated
as follows :—

		INTERROG. PRONOUNS	INTERR. ADVERBS.	INTERR. ADJECT.
Nom. . . .	whether,	who (-ever),	which (-ever), what (-ever),		which(-ever), what(-ever), whose, are Adjectives when added to a Noun.
Acc. . . .	whether,	whom,	which (-ever), what (-ever),	
Gen. . . .	—	{ whose, of whom,	whose, of which, whose, of what	whereof.
Dat. . . .	—	to v. for whom,	to v. for which, to v. for what = why (-ever),	wherefore.
Abl. . . .	{	from whom,	from which, from what = whence,	—
Inst. . . .	—	by v. with whom,	by v. with which, by v. with what = how (-ever),	{ whereby. wherewith.
Loc. . . .	{	in v. at whom,	in v. at which, in v. at what = { when (-ever), where (-ever),	{ wherein.¹ whereat.
Adv. Acc. .	—	towards whom,	towards which, towards what = whither,	whereunto.

¹ To these may be added 'whereon,' 'whereupon.'

Those interrogatives which end in '-ever' are termed Compound Interrogatives, while the rest, if needing any distinctive name, may be called Simple Interrogatives.

The simple interrogatives all correlate with demonstratives; and the compound interrogatives all correlate with some non-demonstrative word or phrase. , These correlations may be tabulated as follows:—

<div align="center">SIMPLE INTERROGATIVES.</div>

Interr. Pronouns.			*Demon. Pronouns.*
Who *v.* Which correlates with			He, She, It, They.
Whom *v.* Which	,,	,,	Him, Her, It, Them.
Whose	,,	,,	His, Hers, Its, Theirs.
What	,,	,,	This, That, These, Those.
Whether	,,	,,	Either of these two alternatives.

Interr. Adjectives.			*Demon. Adjectives.*
What— } Which— }	,,	,,	This—, That—, These—, Those—,

Interr. Adverbs.			*Demon. Adverbs.*
Whence	,,	,,	Thence.
Where	,,	,,	There.
Whither	,,	,,	Thither.
When	,,	,,	Then.
Why	,,	,,	Therefore.
How	,,	,,	Thus.

<div align="center">COMPOUND INTERROGATIVES.</div>

Interr. Pronouns.			
Whoever *v.* Whichever correlates with			Any one or more.
Whatever	,,	,,	Any thing or things.

Interr. Adjectives.			
Whatever— *v.* Whichever—	,,	,,	Any—.

Interr. Adverbs.			
Where-ever	,,	,,	to *v.* at any place.
When-ever	,,	,,	at any time.
Why-ever	,,	,,	for any cause *v.* reason.
How-ever	,,	,,	by *v.* in any manner *v.* way.

The interrogatives discharge exactly the same function in an interrogative sentence that their correlatives do in an assertion.

Hence, as it is always easier to analyse an assertion than a question, the student will do well to practise turning questions into equivalent assertions. When the question is asked by means of an interrogative, he may always do so by replacing the interrogative by its correlative and possibly by some transposition of words. Thus so far as analysis is concerned,

Who was present ? = He was present.
Which played the best ? = She played the best.
Whom did they find ? = They did find him.
Whose is this coat ? = This coat is his.
What do you want ? = You do want that.
Whether will he go or stay ? = Either he will go or stay.
What man called last night ? = That man called last night.
Which hat fits you ? = This hat fits you.
Where was the cow ? = The cow was there.
Whence descends the smoke ? = The smoke descends thence.
Whoever can that be ? = That can be any one.
Whichever would you choose ? = You would choose any one.
Whichever road shall we take ? = We shall take any road.
Wherever has he gone ? = He has gone to any place.

Obs. 1.—The Interrogative pronoun 'Whether' originally meant 'Which of these two persons or things,' as in "God Cupid or the keeper, I know not whether [= which of the two persons] brought you thither," [Morris' *Gr.* § 148]. But as now used 'Whether' generally means 'Which of these two alternatives'; and is followed by a pair of alternative sentences or clauses, standing in apposition to it, as 'Whether [= which of the two alternatives, viz.] will you go or stay?' 'He asked whether [= which of the two alternatives, viz.] you would go or stay.' When used thus it is perhaps best for us to take the word in our analysis as simply a *mark* of alternative inquiry. 'Whether' is sometimes used as a subordinate conjunction, see § 112, **3.** For the sake of emphasis 'Whether' [either as an interrogative or conjunction] is sometimes repeated after the 'or,' *e.g.* 'Whether in the body, I cannot tell; or whether out of the body, I cannot tell.' (A.V.) = I cannot tell which of the two alternatives, viz. that he was in the body or out of the body. 'Whether they be come out for peace, take them alive; or whether they be come out for war, take them alive.'

(A.V.) = If they be come out for peace, or if they be come out for war, take them alive.   For more on 'Whether' see § 99, Obs. 2.

Obs. 2.—The interrogative and demonstrative adverbs are for the most part derived from the old adverbial cases of the interrogative and demonstrative pronouns [See Morris', *Hist. E. Gr.* § 226]. They are however most thoroughly adverbs, and are so termed and treated in our analysis.

66. A predicative Adjective may be followed by either a cognate or an indirect object. This statement applies, not only to an adjective used as a complement, but also to an adjective used as an adverbial attribute or as a co-ordinating attribute, inasmuch as both of these involve a new predication.

The noun following the modern adjective 'worth' may be taken as a cognate object, although the older form of 'worthy' is followed by an indirect object. Thus 'It is worth *a shilling*' [*cog.*] ; 'The workman is worthy *of his meat*' [*ind.*] = in O.E. 'Se wyrhta is wyrðe *his metes*' [*gen. case*].

With probably the exception of 'worth,' all other adjectives requiring completion, *e.g. like, ready, guilty, forgetful, devoid, &c. &c.,* will be found to take an indirect object, as 'They are like [to] *children*' [*ind.*] = in O.E. 'Hí sind ge-líce cildum' [*dat. case*] ; 'I am ready *to go*' [*ind.*] = in O.E. 'Ic eom gearn tó farenne' [*dat. infin.*] ; 'He is guilty *of death*' [*ind.*] = in O.E. 'He is déaðes [*gen. case*] scyldig.'

67. Co-ordination in the Primary Sentence :—With the exception of the main finite verb, any word, phrase, or clause, belonging to the primary sentence may have one or more co-ordinate terms, whose co-ordinate relations are almost always indicated by co-ordinate conjunctions (§ 119). When there is more than one main finite verb we have a Compound Sentence (§ 118).

Words, phrases, and clauses are said to co-ordinate with other words, phrases, or clauses, when, taken separately or

together, they bear the same relation to some other term in the sentence.

In the following primary sentences the co-ordinate terms are indicated, ' *Cats and dogs* were fighting' ; ' I saw *George or Robert*' ; 'Smoke was *here, there, and everywhere*' ; 'They are *neither brave nor good*' ; 'He is *slow but clever*' ; 'She is said to be *amiable and lovely*' ; 'He is *either drunk or in a rage*' ; ' *Whether you are right or wrong* is not the question' ; ' *That you should be amused and that she should be angry* surprises them.'

68. In analysing sentences it is necessary to have some concise method of indicating results. The best possible plan is that of tabular Description. It is to be found in Dr. Morell's well-known and invaluable *Grammar and Analysis*, and may with a slight modification of the terminology be adopted by those who use this work. A System of Analytic Marks appears however to be a desideratum,—a system which, by a few dashes of the pen, may enable the student adequately to indicate the functional elements. It is probable that, in dealing with long and involved sentences, any scheme of marks would become so intricate as to be practically valueless ; but in the analysis of ordinary sentences the following marks will be found useful, especially in teaching those whose minds should not be burthened with technicalities. The successive expansions of this system will be found in §§ 94, 117, 123, 124.

Functional Element.	*Mark.*
Main Subject	▬▬▬▬
„ Verb	∿∿∿∿∿∿∿
„ Complement	∿∿∿∿∿∿∿
„ Object [cognate or direct] . .	▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬
„ Indirect Object	∿∿∿v.∿∿∿

Quotations are placed within double inverted commas.

Ellipses are supplied outside single inverted commas, or within brackets.

Connections are indicated by hyphens, dashes, or sometimes by prolongations of the Mark, according as the Student finds convenient.

N.B.—In applying these marks the Student will do well not only to treat all the periphrastic forms given in §§ 19, 20 as single verbs, but also to allow the verb 'do' to sink into the infinitive which completes it. The numbers placed below the analytic marks call attention to the section where the particular element is explained.

Victor taught John music.
  37   38   49   51

That is worth pounds.
        39   66

They are like children.
        39   66

I gave food to him.
        49   52

There are clouds.
  39

Who was there?
  65

Whose is this?
  65

Go [thou] home, or 'Go' thou 'home.'
46

To hear is to obey.
58   59

We heard him shout.
55

That the old man would go if he could is certain.
37 34

Jack and Jill went up the hill.
67

He asked "Who is there?"
34, 41

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

69. The **Simple Sentence** [§ 35] differs from the primary sentence by reason of its additions *being accidental, i.e.,* not essential to the meaning of the predicate : and it differs from the complex and compound sentences by reason of its *accidental additions* never consisting of a subordinate or co-ordinate clause.   All additions to the primary sentence serve two great purposes, viz. (1) to restrict directly or indirectly the range of some noun, verb, adjective, or adverb ; (2) to introduce the germ of some independent or co-ordinate idea.   In the simple sentence these additions may be tabulated as follows :—

Nouns and pronouns limited by	Substantivals as Epithetic apposites, § 71.
	Adjectivals ,, ,, attributes, § 75.
	Adverbials ,, ,, adverbial-attributes, § 79.
Verbs & verbals indirectly limited by	Substantivals ,, Subordinating apposites, § 72.
	Adjectivals ,, ,, attributes, § 76.
	Adverbials ,, ,, adverbial-attributes,§ 80.
Sentences augmented by	Substantivals ,, Co-ordinating apposites, § 73.
	Adjectivals ,, ,, attributes, § 77.
	Adverbials ,, ,, adverbial-attributes,§ 81.

Verbs and verbals,
Adjectives and adverbs } directly limited by Adverbials, §§ 82—92.

Obs. 1.—Of the Verbal-Nouns, the gerund may be limited either as a verb or a noun ; but the Infinitive only as a verb.
Obs. 2.—The Complementary apposites, attributes, and adverbials are considered under the Primary Sentence [§§ 39, 59].

70. Apposites are *substantivals* inserted as it were over against another substantival,—the two being in the same regimen.   Apposites are of various kinds according to the

functions they discharge in a sentence. They may be tabulated
as follows :—

Epithetic	apposites,	§ 71.
Subordinating	,,	§ 72.
Co-ordinating	,,	§ 73.
Complementary	,,	§ 39.

The last of these has been already considered under the
Primary Sentence, and in § 22 is seen to be originally identical
with the co-ordinating apposite.

71. Epithetic Apposites are apposites which directly
restrict or define the noun or pronoun to which they belong.
The *restrictive* use prevails after general terms [§ 103]; and
the *defining* use after abstract terms [§ 103] formed from verbs,
and after pronouns,—especially the Notional pronoun 'It.'

The *restrictive use* is seen in such a sentence as 'Jack, *the
sailor*, went before us.' For while the word 'Jack' calls our
attention to a considerable number of persons, the addition of
'the sailor' as an apposite, serves to narrow the number to
possibly a single member of our acquaintance. The same is
seen in such sentences as 'William, *the conqueror*, landed at
Pevensey ; ' 'She fell in love with Bob, *the policeman*.'

The *defining power* of the apposite is seen in such com-
plex and simple sentences as

> I have a hope *that all is well*.
> There is a report *that the French have landed*.
> The question was asked *whether all were here*.
> The petition *to serve* was rejected.
> It is pleasant *to sing*.
> It is nice *being admired*.
> It is wise *to be good*.
> It is pleasant *to be praised by all*.
> It is sad *to be in a rage*.
> They welcomed him, *the long lost heir*.
> 'Which, *my covenant*, they brake.'   A.V.

Obs.—The most curious sort of epithetic apposite arises out of what grammarians describe as 'the **redundant object**' This is a construction in which the subject of a dependent noun-clause is *anticipated* by a needless noun or pronoun, standing as the cognate or direct object of the verb. Thus in—

'I see your father's countenance that it is not toward me.'—Gen. xxxi. 5.

'I know thee who thou art.'—Luke iv. 34.

'Conceal me what I am.'—Shak.

'Didst thou not mark the king, what words he spake?'—Shak.

'Consider the lilies of the field how they grow.'—Matt. vi. 28.

'Your father's countenance,' 'thee,' 'me,' 'the king,' 'the lilies of the field,' are *as objects* redundant, for the sense is the same if we say—

'I see that your father's countenance is not toward me.'

'I know who thou art.'

'Conceal what I am.'

'Didst thou not mark what words the king spake?'

'Consider how the lilies of the field grow.'

In analysing it is best to take such noun-clauses as epithetic apposites, serving to define the so-called redundant object.

72. Subordinating Apposites are apposites which limit some verb or verbal connected with the noun or pronoun with which they are in apposition. They are in fact the *germs of subordinate [i.e. adverbial] clauses.* Thus

"Socrates lived a philosopher and died a hero" (Morell) = Socrates lived as a philosopher lives, and died as a hero dies.

Yes, he looked a king = Yes, he looked, as a king looks.

She pardoned him, the traitor! = She pardoned him, though he was a traitor.

73. Co-ordinating Apposites are apposites which limit nothing, but which amount to an independent predication with regard to the noun or pronoun to which they stand in apposition. They are in fact the *germs of co-ordinate clauses.* Thus

They gave it to my mother, sole *guardian* of my youth = They gave it to my mother, and my mother was the sole guardian of my youth.

G

He worshipped God, the *Creator* of the Universe = He worshipped God, and God is the Creator of the Universe.

Socrates, an eminently renowned *philosopher*, died by poison[1] = Socrates, died by poison, and he was an eminently renowned philosopher.

' And I, *the last* [= and I am the last], go forth companionless.'—Tennyson.

Obs.—A co-ordinating apposite may on rare occasions stand in apposition to an entire sentence. In what case O.E. might have placed such an apposite it is impossible to say ; but in Greek it was put in the accusative as we see in—

ῥίψει ἀπὸ πύργου, λυγρὸν ὄλεθρον '= You will be flung from a tower, *a terrible death.*

74. Attributes are *adjectivals* added to some noun or pronoun, and which are, or are taken to be, in agreement with the said noun or pronoun. Attributes are of various kinds according to the functions they discharge in a sentence. They may be tabulated as follows :—

<blockquote>

Epithetic	attributes,	§ 75.
Subordinating	„	§ 76.
Co-ordinating	„	§ 77.
Complementary	„	§ 39.

</blockquote>

The last of these has been already considered in the Primary Sentence, and in § 22 is seen to have originally been a coordinating attribute.

75. Epithetic Attributes are attributes which limit or define the substantival to which they belong. Those which *limit* are those adjectivals classifying persons and things according to their quality and quantity. Those which *define* are those demonstrative adjectives which, as it were, do no more than point out special persons or things. The adjectivals,

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[1] Socrates, philosophus in primis nobilis, veneno interiit.—*Pub. S. Gr.* p. 354.

by which epithetic attributes may be expressed, are various.
Thus in

Good men. *Beautiful* playing. The *better* boy. The *best* scholar.	we have Adjectives.
The[1] man. *This* house. *These* trees.	we have Demonstrative Adjectives.
A *running* stream. *Whipped* cream. A *swollen* river.	we have Verbal Adjectives, *i.e.* Participles.
One horse. The *other* [= second] book. The *second* dish. *An*[2] apple. *Many* people.	we have Numeral Adjectives.
Tom's coat. The *lion's* paw. A *day's* work. A *pound's* weight.	we have Adjectival Genitive cases.
The paw *of the lion.* The weight *of a pound* A cup *of gold.*	we have Adjectival Prepositional phrases.
Man [= male] servant. *He* [= male] goat. *She* [= female] wolf.	we have Nouns[3] and Pronouns used as Adjectives.

Obs.—The comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives generally express *both quantity and quality*, inasmuch as when rightly used the comparative certainly implies the existence of at least two persons or things and the superlative of at least three.

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[1] 'The' is a weak form of 'That.' If the student does not choose to let it coalesce with the noun he must treat it as an epithetic attribute.

[2] 'A' or 'An' is a weak form of 'One.' If the student does not choose to let it coalesce with the noun, he must treat it as an epithetic attribute.

[3] Such Genitive Compounds as 'a *sheep* shearing,' 'a *grape* gathering,' &c. &c., must be taken as Compound Nouns. See § 12.

76. Subordinating Attributes are attributes which restrict the range *of some verb* or verbal connected with the noun or pronoun to which they are attributed. Such subordinating attributes form the *germs of adverbial clauses*, and may always be expanded into such.   Thus

He shot it *flying* [= when it was flying].

The hero, *overcome* by misfortune [= because he was overcome by misfortune] wept.

Persecuted [= though we are persecuted], yet we are not forsaken.

Being guilty [= because he was guilty], he was transported.

We saw the ship *sinking* [= when it was sinking].

'Sounds, *inharmonious* in themselves and *harsh* [= though they be inharmonious and harsh in themselves], yet, *heard* in scenes [= when they are heard in scenes] where peace for ever reigns, and only there, please highly for their sake.'—Cowper.

'And the Queen herself, *grateful* [= inasmuch as she was grateful] to Prince Geraint for service done, loved her.' —Tennyson.

'Nor did she lift an eye nor speak a word, *rapt* [= inasmuch as she was rapt] in the fear and in the wonder of it.'— Tennyson.

'Laborious pedants, themselves *destitute* [= though they themselves were destitute] of taste, sense, and spirit, could still read, &c.'—Macaulay.

'Then, howsoever *patient* [= though he was patient by howsoever much], Yniol's heart danced in his bosom.'—Tennyson.

Obs. 1.—Although the subordinating attributes and apposites can usually be turned into the complements of adverbial clauses, the student must not imagine that they are the complements of *elliptical* clauses, even when they are preceded by a subordinate conjunction [see § 115, *β* 2].   They are *true attributes and apposites*, for in languages possessed of inflections we find them in agreement with their noun or pronoun, *whatever* the case of their noun or pronoun may be : whereas if they were the complements of elliptical clauses they would invariably be in the *nominative* case.   This

may be illustrated by the [following Greek,¹ Latin, and O.E. sentences, where the subordinating attributes are seen to be in various cases—

ταῦτα λέγων [*nom.*], ἐδάκρυε = As he said these things, he wept.

ἐνέπρησαν τὰς σκηνὰς ἐρήμους [*acc.*] = They burned the tents, as they were deserted.

Servilius Ahala Sp. Maelium, regnum appetentem [*acc.*] interemit. = Servilius Ahala slew Sp. Maelus, because he aimed at royal power.

Ne leofað se man be hláfe [*dat.*] ánum [*dat.*] = Man shall not live by bread, when it is alone.

Obs. 2.—In O.E. the regular termination for forming adverbs from adjectives was -e. This -e has gradually disappeared, so that we sometimes meet with *Adverbs under the form of Adjectives*, as ' He spake *plain*,' Mk. vii. 35 = in O.E.:He *riht-e* spraec. The student will experience little perplexity on this point if he remembers that *an attribute of the unexpressed ' contained-noun '* [§ 40] *can only appear as an adverb:* thus in ' He spoke right,' ' He slept sound,' and ' He studied long,' the words 'right,' ' sound,' ' long,' are all adverbs, because they indicate attributes of the unexpressed contained nouns, which refer to ' *right* speaking,' ' a *sound* sleep,' ' a *long* study ; ' and in such a sentence as ' They kept him *long*,' we at once see that ' long ' cannot be an adjective, for '*they* were not long,' ' *He* was not long,' but ' The *keeping* was long.' See also § 82, Obs. 2.

77. Co-ordinating Attributes are attributes which neither limit nor define anything, but which amount to an independent predication with regard to the noun or pronoun with which they are in attribution. They are in fact the *germs of co-ordinate clauses*, and may always be expanded into such. Thus

The messenger came *running* [= and he was running].

Cicero came *first* [= and he was first] into the assembly.¹

They came *wearing* [= and they wore] long dresses.

You *alone* [= but you were alone] assisted us.²

The immortal [= and he is the immortal] Hannibal passed this way.

He came in with his hands *dirty* [= and they were dirty].

' I have made *ready* [= and it is ready] my dinner.'—R.A.V.

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¹ Cicero *primus* in senatum venit.

² Tu *solus* adjuvisti nos.

'He has made the *round* [= and it is round] world so sure, &c.'—A.V.

'And here had fall'n a great part of a tower, *whole* [= and it was whole], *like* [= and it was like] a crag, &c.'—Tennyson.

'And I, the last, go forth *companionless* [= and I am companionless].'—Tennyson.

'Then rode Geraint, a little *spleenful* yet [= and he was still a little spleenful], across the bridge, &c.'—Tennyson.

'Hither came at noon mournful Œnone, *wandering* forlorn [= and she was wandering forlorn], &c.'—Tennyson.

'Behind him the desert sand-waste stretched *lifeless* [= and it was without life], *interminable* [= and it was interminable], *reflecting* [= and it was reflecting] its lurid glare on the horizon.'—Kingsley.

Obs. 1.—When an adjectival is capable of expressing several different shades of meaning it is sometimes *quite impossible to decide* whether it is best to take it as an epithetic, subordinating, co-ordinating, or complementary attribute,—or even whether it is not an adverb mutilated into an adjectival form [§ 76, Obs. 2]. Thus in 'The *Castled* Crag of Drachenfels,' 'Castled' is an epithetic attribute, if there are several crags there without castles ; but, if there is only one such crag, then 'castled' is a co-ordinating attribute.

Again in

'We saw the moon *reflected* in the lake,' 'reflected' is asubordinating attribute if it tells us where we saw the moon ; but otherwise it is a co-ordinating attribute.

Again in

'The church stood *gleaming*,' 'gleaming' is a complementary attribute, if 'stood' is to be taken as a copula [§ 22]; but otherwise it is a co-ordinating attribute.

Again in

'The church stood gleaming *white*.'

'The voice of Enid, Yniol's daughter, rang *clear* through the open casement.'—Tennyson.

'White' and 'clear' are mutilated adverbs, if they tell the sort of 'gleam' or 'ring'; but otherwise they are co-ordinating attributes equivalent to 'and the church was white,' 'and the voice was clear.'

Under such circumstances the student must analyze according to what *appears to him the most probable* shade of meaning.

78. Adverbial-attributes differ from ordinary attributes in telling, not of the quality or quantity of a noun, but of its place, time, cause, or manner. They are to be taken *as if* they were in agreement with the noun to which they belong. The various functions they discharge in a sentence may be tabulated as follows :—

> Epithetic Adverbial-attributes, § 79.
> Subordinating   „   § 80.
> Co-ordinating   „   § 81.

Obs.—A refusal to recognise a class of adverbial-attributes would occasion great practical inconvenience ; but it is nevertheless probable that all such are *merely the ordinary adverbials belonging to some unexpressed but latent participle, e.g.*

> A picture *in Sepia* = a picture *painted* in Sepia.
> A book *under the table* = a book *lying* under the table.
> The *then* king = the king *reigning* then.

79. Epithetic Adverbial-attributes are adverbial-attributes used to restrict the range of the noun to which they belong. As there is no need to repeat what has been said in the last section, it is only necessary now to add, that an epithetic adverbial-attribute may always be embodied in an *epithetic* attributive clause [§ 105] thus

The *then* king was William the fourth = The king, who was then reigning, was &c.

We often under-rate *everyday* events = We often under-rate the events, which occur every day.

'Thine *often* infirmities'—A.V. = Thine infirmities, that often come upon thee.

'And many a serpent of fell kind, *with wings before and sting behind*' = serpent. . . that had wings before and sting behind. —'Hudibras.'

80. Subordinating Adverbial-attributes are adverbial-attributes that restrict the range of some verb or verbal connected with the noun or pronoun to which they belong. Such

adverbial-attributes are the *germs of subordinate clauses*, but can best be embodied in a *subordinating* attributive clause [§ 106] thus

He was melted at the sight of his wife *in tears* = ... of his wife who [= because she] was in tears.

Obs.—If [for reasons suggested in § 105 Obs.] we take adverbial-attributes attaching to an *indefinite* substantival as epithetic rather than subordinating, examples of subordinating adverbial-attributes become extremely scarce.   They are nevertheless to be occasionally found in standard authors.

81. Co-ordinating Adverbial-attributes are adverbial-attributes that suggest some co-ordinate prediction with regard to the noun or pronoun they belong to.   Such adverbial-attributes are the *germs of co-ordinate clauses*, but can best be embodied in a *co-ordinating* Attributive clause [§ 107] thus

He attained peace *with honour* = He attained peace, which [= and it] was combined with honour.

He discoursed of the sun *in heaven* = He discoursed of the sun, which [= and it] is in heaven.

'I saw young Harry *with his beaver on*' (Shak.) = I saw young Harry, who [= and he] stood with his beaver on.

'I quickly found ... that she regarded me as a very odd kind of fellow *with an unfortunate aspect*' (Addison) = ... fellow, who [= and he] was linked with an unfortunate aspect.

82. Adverbials directly [1] limit or define verbs, adjectives, and adverbs,—and also verbal-nouns [2] and verbal-adjectives. The limitations and definitions are numerous, but may all be classed under the four heads of Place, Time, Cause, and

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[1] Subordinating Apposites, Attributes and Adverbial-attributes [§§ 72, 76, 80] do so *indirectly*, i.e. *through the nouns and pronouns to which they belong.*

[2] The Infinitive is always limited by an adverbial ; but the Gerund may be limited either by an adjectival or an adverbial.

Manner,—answering to the interrogative adverbs 'whence?'
'where?' 'whither?' for Place; 'when?' for Time; 'why?'
for Cause; 'how?' for Manner. Most of the adverbials limit
or define verbs [verbal-nouns and verbal-adjectives], but *some
few only limit or define other adverbs and comparative adjectives.*
The latter do not properly fall under consideration at this point
of our work, but for the sake of convenience are included in
the following table, where the non-adverbial parts of the
illustrations are printed in italics.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIALS,
WITH ILLUSTRATIONS.

Place .

Ablation :—hence, thence, whence, away ; *walked* from London ;
shrank from walking ; *departed* this life ; *I came*
whence he came.

Location :—here, there, where, herein, therein, by, near,
together, apart, above, below, outside, yonder ; at
home, on the table, in town, under ground, by the
door, in love, *gone* a-hunting ; *it stood* where he
lived.

Destination :—hither, thither, whither, hitherward, thitherward,
whitherward, forewards, backwards, upwards,
downwards, homewards ; towards the hill ; *I will
go* whither you wish.

Course :—along the street ; *he walked* the deck, *he sailed* the
sea, *he ran* his course.

Time .

Ablation :—henceforth, thenceforth, thenceforward.

Location :—now, then, to-day, yesterday, to-morrow, lately,
formerly, once, before, formerly, hereafter, instantly,
presently, forthwith, soon, already, now-a-days, no
more ; in a year, at any time ; *I was out* when you
called.

Duration :—ever, never, still, always, continuously, for ever,
heretofore, hereafter ; *He lived* a year ; *I read*
while you were walking ; *I will wait* till
Tuesday.

Repetition :—again, again and again, once and again, once
more, once, twice, thrice, fourtimes, fivetimes,
often, seldom, rarely, frequently, daily, annually ;
by turns ; *I answered* whenever you spoke.

Cause .

Initial Cause :—hence, thence, whence, thereupon, therefrom,
v. Ground   wherefore ; *He died* of hunger, *He suffered* from
asthma ; Spring having come *the flowers bloom*,
I sang because you requested me.

Final Cause .—*longed* for you, *strove* after success, *plotted* against
v. Purpose   the king, *good* for nothing, *fit* to die, *ready* for
killing, *He did that* to succeed ; *He did that* in
order that he might succeed.

Condition :—conditionally ; *He would do it* if you were present.

Concession :—notwithstanding, nevertheless, however ; *He would
do it* though you were absent.

Manner .

Quality :—well, badly, highly, lowly, gladly, sadly, ignorantly,
knowingly.

Quantity —much, little, very, singly, doubly, trebly, fourfoldly,
half, slightly, scarcely, partly, greatly, exceedingly,
solely, merely, only, far.

Degree :—so, as, the, too, almost, well nigh, nearly, hardly,
enough, sufficiently, quite, equally, exactly ;
worried to death ; more, most, less, least, -er (com-
parative suffix), -est (super. suffix).

Similarity :—*He did not do so well* as I hoped. *He appeared as
tall* as I expected. The more he strove *the more
they resisted*.

Dissimilarity :—*He ran badly* in comparison with Jack ; *It is
more* than I expected. *It is less* than you said. *He
is a taller man* than you.

Effect —*It was made so high* that it fell.

Agency —*I did it* through you.

Instrumentality :—*cut* with a knife, *burnt* by fire, *borne* of four.

Association :—*I worked* with him.

Dissociation :—*I finished it* without her.

Substitution :—*I gave a shilling* for this, *He died* for us, *We
walked* instead of riding.

Opposition ·—*They fought* against Cæsar.

Cumulation .—*Then you have done that* also, likewise, too.

Hypothesis :—possibly, perchance, haply,· perhaps, perad-
venture, probably, maybe, mayhap.

Negation :—not, not a whit, not a bit, not at all, not in the
least, in no wise, in no respect, by no means, on no
account. [For Yes and No, see Obs. 3].

Reference .—concerning you.

&c., &c.

As is seen in the above table, the adverbial functions are discharged by various classes of adverbials, *i.e.* by prepositional phrases, the comparative suffix, nouns used with the force of old adverbial cases, the nominative absolute, the infinitive, and adverbial clauses; but the student will observe that *any special function can seldom be discharged by more than a very few of these classes of adverbials*.

Thus, for example, if I say 'Revolutionary principles spread with great rapidity in France,' and if I want to add some information as to the temporal starting-point of this rapid movement, I can do so either by the use of an adverb or adverbial prepositional phrase, *e.g.*

　　　'Thenceforth revolutionary principles spread, &c.,'
　　　'From 1780 revolutionary principles spread, &c.,'
but the same sort of temporal idea can be expressed neither by a comparative suffix, case function, nominative absolute, infinitive, nor clause.

Again, if I say 'He died,' and if I want to tell the Initial Cause of his death, I may do so either by an adverb, adverbial prepositional phrase, nominative absolute, or subordinate clause, *e.g.*

　'He died therefrom.'
　'He died from starvation.'
　'The food having been exhausted, he died.'
　'He died, because there was no food.'

But the same sort of causal idea can be expressed neither by a suffix, case function, nor infinitive.

The classes of adverbials most commonly used to discharge any special function are indicated in the following table, either by the insertion of some illustration, or by the reference to some section where an illustration is to be found.

	ADVERB	PREP. PHRASE	SUFFIX	CASE FUNCTION	NOM. ABS.	INFINITIVE	CLAUSE
Place.							
Ablation	thence	from London	—	*descended* the hill	—	§85 rare	§ 110 α.
Location	there	at home	—	*stood* his ground	—	§85	§ 110 β.
Destination	thither	towards it	—	*walking* home	—	—	§ 110 γ.
Course	—	along the road	—	*sailed* the sea	—	—	—
Time.							
Ablation	thenceforth	from 1780	—		§86	—	§ 111 α.
Location	now	in the past	—	—	—	—	§ 111 β.
Duration	ever	for a year	—	*lived* a year	—	—	§ 111 γ.
Repetition	again	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cause.							
Initial Cause	therefrom	from starvation	—	—	§86	—	§ 112 α.
Final Cause	purposely	for success	—	—	—	§85	§ 112 β.
Condition	conditionally	§ 115 β. 3	—	—	—	—	§ 112 γ.
Concession	nevertheless	notwithstanding	—	—	—	—	§ 112 δ.

Manner.			-er, -est	§ 113 a.	§ 113 β.	§ 113 γ.	§ 85 rare
Quality . . .	softly	—					
Quantity . .	much						
Degree . . .	more . . .	—					
Similarity . .	similarly . .	according to that . .	—	—	—	—	
Dissimilarity .	unlike	in comparison with that	—	—	—	—	
Effect	effectively . .	with effect	—	—	—	—	
Agency . . .	mediately . .	through agents					
Instrumentality	instrumentally	by fire					
Association .	conjointly . .	with my father					
Dissociation .	alone	without help					
Substitution .	vicariously . .	for £1					
Opposition .	adversely. . .	against me					
Cumulation .	too, also . . .	besides that					
Reference . .	—	touching that	—	—	—	—	—
Hypothesis. .	possibly						
Negation. . .	not						

Obs. 1.—It is quite *impossible to make a hard and fast Classification* of Adverbials. Through the influence of metaphor, analogy, and the practical equivalence of many ideas, *the same adverbial often serves for two very different functions* [as, 'with a dog,' which may express either Instrumentality or Association], *or even allows the same adverbial simultaneously to discharge two or more different functions* [as, 'seriously,' which may at the same moment express either Quality or Degree : and as, 'I am happy, *when I see you*,' where the adverbial Clause simultaneously expresses either temporal Location, Initial Cause, or Condition, for 'when[1] I see you,' may = 'because I see you,' and 'if[1] I see you.'].

Obs. 2. — The adverbials of Quality and Quantity represent the adjectivals of quality and quantity *belonging to the noun contained in the verb.* Thus in 'It surprises me greatly,' there 's 'surprise' contained in the verb, and it is a '*great* surprise.' Again in 'He saw doubly,' the 'sight' was '*double.*' For more on this point see § 76 Obs. 2.

Obs. 3.—'Yes,' 'yea,' and 'No,' 'nay,' are often classed as adverbials but we shall not regard them as such, inasmuch as they never limit verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. But, inasmuch as they represent entire sentences, we shall class them as Interjections.[2] Some four centuries ago according to Sir T. More[3] the most accurate use of these words was as follows :—

> Yea = 'I agree to that affirmative proposition.'
> Yes = '   ,,   ,,   negative   ,,   '
> Nay = 'I deny that affirmative proposition.'
> No = '   ,,   ,,   negative   ,,   '

'Yea' and 'Nay' have recently dropped out of use; and 'Yes' and 'No' have acquired a variety of meanings which vary *according to the acquiescent, deliberative, incredulous, or 'contradictory, tone of voice* with which they are pronounced. Thus in reply to the affirmative statement 'It is certain,'

> 'Yes' [acquiescent] = It is so.
> 'Yes' [deliberative] = It may possibly be so.
> 'No' [incredulous] = You don't say so.
> 'No' [contradictory] = It is not so.

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[1] The easy transition from 'Time' to 'Condition' is seen by the way in which the 'if' of the protasis is often correlated with 'then' in the apodosis, as 'Then I will do it, *if* you wish.'

[2] According to the *Primer of Philology* [Ch. vi. Sec. 10] an Interjection "is in itself *a whole speech*, though undeveloped and vague."

[3] See Sir T. More's Confutation of Tyndale in Skeat's *Specimens of English Literature*, p. 191.

Again in reply to the negative statement 'It is not certain,'

> 'No' [acquiescent]   = It is not certain.
> 'Yes' [contradictory] = It *is* certain.

The Thought, which the speaker implies in his tone, is *frequently added* in the form of a sentence, *e.g.* 'Yes, *it is so*.' Again, a strong assertion is sometimes couched under the form of an ironical negative question. When this is the case, the *obvious meaning* of the speaker deprives the 'Yes' of all tone of contradiction and makes it acquiescent. Isn't it wet? Yes = It is so indeed.

83. Adverbials *continued.* **Adverbial Words** [*i.e.* Adverbs] consist for the most part of the remains of old *oblique cases,* and of the more or less worn down *remains of phrases.* The transition from oblique cases may be seen in such old genitives as on-ce, twi-ce, thri-ce, alway-s, need-s,—in such old datives as 'seld-om,' 'whil-om,'—and in the interrogative and demonstrative adverbs [§ 65]. The formation of or from phrases may be seen in such adverbs as 'to-day,' 'in-deed,' 'al-so,' 'else-where,' 'now-a-day,' 'may-be,' 'per-haps.'

Obs. 1.—In spite of the loss of its case inflection, traditional usage still preserves the force of the **Adverbial Accusative** to the mere stem of the old case in such sentences as 'The heaven was shut *three years and six months*' = ᴁ O.E. Séᴐ heofon wæs belocen þréo gér [acc.] and syx mónaðas [acc.].'

Obs. 2.—In O.E. [as well as in other Aryan languages] a pronoun in the dative case was often introduced for the purpose of calling attention to the person specially interested in an action: this is the so called **"Ethical dative"** [p. 11, note]. In spite of the loss of all distinction of form between the accusative and dative in the modern Objective case of the pronouns, traditional usage has preserved to us the old Ethical dative. This old adverbial case appears in the following sentences:—

> Gá þe forð = Go *thee* forth.
> He him hám-weard ferde = He fared *him* homewards
> 'Get *thee* gone.'—Shak.
> 'This skull has lain *you* in the ground these three years.'—Shak.
> 'Look how this river comes *me* cranking in.'—Shak.

Obs. 3.—Whenever nouns or pronouns admit of the addition of a preposition we may be sure that they are discharging an adverbial function ; but in general such nouns and pronouns will be found to appear as Indirect Objects, see § 53.

84. Adverbials *continued.* Prepositional Phrases not only discharge the functions of all the old adverbial cases which we know of, but also of all imaginable oblique cases ; hence we may speak of them as ' *Case Equivalents.*' Laying aside the case equivalent of the adjectival Genitive case, all others are the equivalents of actual and possible *adverbial* cases, thus

He walked *along the deck*	= Accusative [adverbial] case.
He lived *through a century*	= ,, ,, ,,
He spoke *of you*	= Genitive [adverbial] case.
He thought *of the prize*	= ,, ,, ,,
He sent a book *to her*	= Dative case.
He strove *for victory*	= ,, ,,
He sailed *from London*	= Ablative case.
He came *out of gaol*	= ,, ,,
He lives *at home*	= Locative case.
He swims *in the sea*	= ,, ,,
He went *by steam*	= Instrumental case.
He was eaten *of worms*	= ,, ,,
He studied *with me*	= Sociative case.
He was sent *along with her*	= ,, ,,
He did it *without me*	= Carative case.

and so on, for any cases that ever have, or ever could have, existed.

In the following table simple and compound prepositions are classified according to their most common uses ; and are, when necessary, illustrated by being placed in suggestive phrases, where the non-prepositional words are added in italics.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS

USED IN THE FORMATION OF ADVERBIAL PHRASES [1]

Place .
- Ablation :—from, out of.
- Location. .
  - at, in, within, inside.
  - before, in front of, face to face with, opposite to, in the presence of.
  - behind, after.
  - beside, by, by the side of, alongside of.
  - under, underneath, beneath.
  - on, over, above, upon.
  - round, around, about, outside, without, beyond, besides.
  - near, nigh, next.
  - far-from.
  - amid, among, in the midst of, betwixt, between.
- Destination —towards, to, into, unto, up to.
- Course :—along, through, over, by.

Time .
- Ablation —from *this time*.
- Location. .
  - at *Michaelmas*, in *the Autumn*, within *a year*.
  - before *long*.
  - after *writing a letter*.
  - on *that day*, above *six weeks*, over *a century*.
  - about *a month*.
  - near *a year*, next *week*.
  - far from *the date*.
  - between *Monday and Thursday*.
- Duration :—through, during, pending, since, until.

Cause
- Initial Cause :—*died* from *disappointment*, *died* of *grief*, because of, owing to.
- Final Cause :—*strove* for *victory*, *longed* to *succeed*.

---

[1] The only preposition which does not always fall within this list is 'Of.' The reason for this arises from the fact that the idea of material or possession is not adverbial but adjectival.   The 'Of' of Reference [= about, concerning] however occurs in the above table, because the idea of reference is adverbial.

Similarity .—*according to the directions, after the pattern.*

Di-similarity :—*small* in comparison with *the other.*

Agency :—*done* through *your means.*

Instrumentality ·—*done* by *you, destroyed* by *fire, cut* with *a knife, eaten* of *worms.*

Association .—*went* with *him, walked* along with *her.*

Dissociation ·—*studied* without *assistance, there was none* except

Manner ⟨   *him,* save, but.

Substitution :—*£10* for *this, suffered* on account of *you.*

Opposition :—*fought* against *Cæsar,* notwithstanding *your advice,* in opposition to *you.*

Cumulation :—*many more* besides *that,* in addition to.

Reference —*the history* of *Rome, news* about *your brother,* touching, concerning, regarding, in reference to.

&c., &c.

Obs. 1.—The following is a table of Old English prepositions. There is considerable variation in the spelling of these prepositions, and also in their meanings according as they are followed by a genitive, accusative, dative, or instrumental case.

Place ⟨

Ablation ·—fram = from ; of = from, out of, off ; be *v.* æt = from.

Location ⟨

æt = at, in ; tó = to, at ; in = in ; innan *v.* binnan *v.* wið-innan *v.* on-innan = within, inside.

fore *v.* be-foran *v.* æt-foran *v.* tó-foran = before ; ongéan = opposite to.

be-hindan *v.* be-æftan = behind, abaft ; wiðæftan = behind, after ; be *v.* bi *v.* big = by, near.

under = under ; under-nyðan = underneath.

on = in, on, upon ; uppon = upon : ofer = over, above, upon ; búfan *v.* on-ufan = above.

ymbe *v.* ymb-útan *v.* on bútan = round, about ; útan *v.* bútan *v.* wið-útan = outside, without ; ofer = over, beyond ; be-geondan = beyond.

néah = near, nigh ; un-feor = near ; wið = near, nigh, by the side of ; æt = near, next ; ge-hende = near ; feorr = far from.

on = among ; tó-middes *v.* on-middan = amid ; ge-mang *v.* on-ge-mang = among ; betwux = betwixt ; betwýnan = between.

Destination ⟨

tó-weardes *v.* to-géanes *v.* wið *v.* tó = towards ; oð = unto ; tó = to, unto, up to ; in-tó *v.* in *v.* innan *v.* on = into.

Course . . ⟨

and-lang = along ; þurh = through ; geond = through, throughout, over ; ofer = over.

Time
{
  Ablation :—fram = from.
  Location
  {
    on = at, in, on ; tó = at ; in = at ; ǽr v. fore v. be-foran v.
    tó-foran = before, ere ; æfter = after ; ymbe = about.
    &c., &c.
  }
  Duration :—óð = till, until.
}

Cause
{
  Initial Cause :—for = because of.
  Final Cause :—tó = for ; for = on account of.
}

Manner
{
  Similarity :—æfter = after, according to.
  Agency :—þurh = through.
  Instrumentality :—fram = by ; of = by ; mid = with.
  Association :—mid v. wið v. be v. æt = with ; be v. bi = besides ; tó-éacan = besides.
  Dissociation :—bútan = without, except, but ; ymb-útan = except.
  Substitution :—for = for ; wið = instead of.
  Opposition :—ongéan v. tó-geanes v. wið v. æt = against.
  Cumulation .—ofer = besides.
  Reference :—of v. be v. ymbe = of, about, touching, concerning.
}

Obs. 2.—As a true participle cannot be governed by a preposition, the presence of a '*governing*' preposition before a verbal in ' -ing ' may be taken as proving it to be Gerund [§ 25], for example

> I thought of *going* home.
> He aspires to-*winning* the prize.
> That misfortune sprang from *lying*.
> He went a[1]-*hunting*.
> We saw the ship a[1]-*sinking*.
> ' While the ark was a-*preparing*.'—R.A.V.

In O E. the original of our modern gerund had so little of the character of a *verbal*-noun, that it never governed an accusative. We see the transition from its older to its more modern use in the following passage from Shakspere where a gerund is followed after the O.E. manner by a genitive [case-equivalent], then after the Modern English mode by a direct object, and lastly by an adverbial prepositional phrase,—'Thou art so fat-witted, with drinking *of old sack*, and unbuttoning *thee* after supper, and sleeping *upon benches* after noon, that thou hast forgotten.'

---

[1] This ' a ' represents the O.E. preposition ' on,' which often meant ' in '; so that ' We saw the ship a sinking ' = We saw the ship *in the act of sinking*. A gerund with this preposition is discharging a temporal Locative function.

Obs. 3.—In prepositional phrases containing a relative or interrogative we often find the preposition placed at the end of the clause, and the relative or interrogative, which it governs, at the commencement of the clause or possibly altogether omitted, as in

This is the person *whom* [= from whom] you took it *from.*

'These needy persons do not know *what* [= that of which] to talk *of.*' —Addison.

'No author, *that* [=of whom] I know *of,* has written professedly upon it,'—Addison.

'There is another set of men *that* [= to which] I must lay claim *to.*' — Addison.

I did not know the man [*whom*] you spoke *of.*

Obs. 4.—When a preposition [having of course its older *adverbial* character] is prefixed or suffixed to an active verb or verbal, the said verb or verbal is *invariably transitive,* as

> The stream over-flowed its banks.
> The dog over-took the boy.
> The man built-up a fortune.
> The cat ate-up the cake.
> The child gulped-down the dose.
> The surveyor marked-out the ground.

Even in absence of the hyphen the student need not mistake the *adjoining words,* 'up a fortune,' 'up the cake,' 'down the dose,' 'out the ground,' for adverbial prepositional phrases, inasmuch as they tell neither the place, time, cause, or manner of the verbs 'built,' 'ate,' 'gulped,' or 'marked' : when however they do tell of such things, the prepositions are in reality case equivalents, and ought therefore to be coupled with the noun or pronoun.

Obs. 5.—When the noun or pronoun, governed by a preposition in an active sentence, is made the subject in a passive one, the preposition and verb are in general found to coalesce ; and by so doing form a compound verb of fuller meaning. Thus the active sentences, 'The dog walked with-me,' 'We journeyed from-London,' 'I traded with-him,' may appear in the passive as ' I was walked-with by the dog,' 'London was journeyed-from by us,' 'He was traded-with by me.' The preposition is however sometimes dropped , especially when its continuance would involve an absurdity. Thus we do not resolve the active sentence 'She gave to-me a loaf,' into the passive ' I was *given-to* a loaf by her '; but into ' I was *given* a loaf by her.'

85. Adverbials *continued.* The Infinitive form of the verbal-noun *frequently discharges the adverbial functions belonging*

to a dative or a locative case,—the former telling of the end or purpose of an act, the latter of the sphere or state of an action. On rare occasions we meet with infinitives discharging an adverbial genitive or ablative function, as in 'My readers too have the satisfaction *to find* [= of finding] that there is no rank, &c.'—Addison. 'What doth hinder me *to be baptized* [= from being baptized]?'—A.V.

Except as discharging dative or locative functions, the adverbial infinitive is however so rarely used, that we may almost dismiss it from observation. In O.E. there was a special form of the Infinitive for the dative, and in Latin there was a special form of the Verbal-noun for the locative [viz. the Supine in -u]. In modern English we have no such convenient inflectional forms, but the nature of the adverbial function discharged by an infinitive can often be decided by turning it into a prepositional phrase. If the preposition be 'for' the infinitive is discharging a dative function; if the preposition be 'a' [= in or on] the infinitive is dischanging a locative function. Thus

I strive *to succeed* = for to succeed *v.* for success.
I saw him *sink*   = a-sinking *v.* in the act of sinking.
I seemed *to fly*   = in the act of flying.

Some of these prepositional phrases, although somewhat antiquated, are still occasionally met with, *e.g.*

'They came together *for to consider* of this matter.'—A.V.
'Peter saith unto them, I go *a-fishing*.'—A.V.

There are however so many sentences in which, through the slightest change in the meaning of the verb, either a dative or locative force is appropriate, that, in our analysis, it is best to content ourselves with the recognition of an 'Adverbial Infinitive' as such, without attempting any further refinements. Even to do this is sometimes difficult, as may be seen in § 47, where an infinitive follows a verb which admits of either a

[substantival] cognate object or an [adverbial] indirect object, *i e.* of an infinitive telling either of the purport or purpose of an act. Thus in 'They prayed him to show, &c.' Tyndale took the 'to show &c.' as telling the *purport* of the prayer; but Wycliffe took it as telling the *purpose* of the prayer, for in their versions we have

> ' Desyringe *that he wold shewe, &c.*'—Tyndale.
> ' And preiden hym *for to shewe, &c.*'—Wycliffe.

Obs. 1.—The adverbial infinitive may of course consist of the infinitive of a copula verb, as

> I strive *to be good.*
> I sent him *to be punished.*

The case agreement of the complements does not affect the case function discharged by the copulas so completed. Thus in the above examples 'good' is nominative, and 'punished' is objective [acc.]; but both 'to be good' and 'to be punished' are adverbial infinitival clauses discharging the same functions.

86. Adverbials *continued.* The so-called 'Nominative Absolute' construction is an adverbial phrase expressive of Time and Cause. It consists of a noun or pronoun in the nominative and a participle [with its belongings] in agreement with it. The whole phrase is spoken of as absolute [from Latin absolvere = to release] because it is not joined by any bond of case agreement, with any member of the sentence. Thus in

> *Lessons being ended,* the children ran out.
> 'Then rode Geraint into the castle court, *his charger trampling many a prickly star.*'—Tennyson.
> 'There on a day, *he* [*i.e.* Arthur] *sitting high in hall,* before him came a forester of Dean.'—Tennyson.
> *Spring having come,* the flowers bloom.
> 'I pray you of your courtesy, *he being as he is,* to let me be.' —Tennyson.

We at once perceive that

‘ Lessons being ended ’ = when lessons were ended.
‘ His charger trampling, &c.’ = while his charger trampled, &c.
‘ He sitting high, &c.’ = while he was sitting high, &c.
‘ Spring having come ’ = because spring has come.
‘ He being as he is ’ = because he is as he is.’

The use of the Nominative in this construction affords an instance of the establishment of what was originally a piece of bad grammar. In O.E., as in all other Aryan languages[1] the case of the noun used in the absolute construction was invariably an *adverbial* case : but, after this noun had lost its adverbial inflection, people came so completely to overlook its adverbial character, that they gradually allowed even the nominative of the personal pronoun to appear in this construction.

Obs. 1.—The student must take care to observe that it is not the participle which marks the absolute phrase, but the independent noun or pronoun with which the participle agrees. A participle, without such an independent noun or pronoun, often appears to tell of Time or Cause ; but when it does so it is merely a subordinating attribute ; see § 76.

Obs. 2.—The temporal or causal force is sometimes so slight, that the Nominative Absolute clause approaches very near to a co-ordinate clause, as in ‘ We put to sea, *Aristarchus...being with us,*’ R.A.V., which seems almost to = ‘ we put to sea *and Aristarchus was with us.*’ But however slight the adverbial force may be, it is probable that it is always there, so that we shall class the Absolute construction only amongst the adverbials.

87. Adjectivals *are restricted or defined in their range by adverbials* of various kinds, as will be seen in the following sections. Amongst adjectivals the participles are the only ones whose meaning renders them capable of receiving *every* kind of

[1] The adverbial cases used in the absolute construction vary much. The general use is as follows : in Sanskrit, the locative ; in Latin, the ablative ; in Greek, the genitive (abl.) ; in Lithuanian, Gothic, and O.E. the dative.

adverbial restriction. This capacity *springs from their verbal character*, and calls for no special notice here.

88. Adjectives of quality are constantly qualified by adverbs of Degree and Quantity. Thus (a) we have the Degree of a quality expressed in '*so* good,' '*as* good,' '*too* good,' 'good *enough*,' '*the* better,' '*more* swift,' '*most* swift,' [= 'swift-*er*,' 'swift-*est*']; and (β) we have the Quantity of a quality expressed in '*very* good,' 'doubly glad,' 'then rode Geraint, a *little* spleenful yet.'—Tennyson.

Obs. 1.—Adjectives of quality sometimes appear to be qualified by adverbs of *quality*, as in ' He was *terribly* hot,' ' I am *intensely* glad.' But such adverbs of quality, when used thus with adjectives, have the force of adverbs of *quantity*. Thus in the above sentences, ' terribly ' = very, and ' intensely ' = exceedingly.

Obs. 2.—The adverbs ' more ' and ' most ' are frequently represented by the adverbial suffixes -er and -est. Thus ' more fair ' = ' fair-er '; and ' most fair ' = ' fair-est.'

89. Nouns possessing an adverbial force are sometimes used with adjectives of quantity. These nouns are the stems [with or without the mark of the plural number] of what were once adverbial cases, and which, in spite of the loss of what in O.E. was a genitive or instrumental termination, have preserved their traditional force through the influence of constant use. The following are examples of some of these adverbial case-stems with the O.E. forms:—

Two-ells high	. .	O.E. twegra elna (gen.) héah.
Inch long.	. . .	O.E. ynces (gen.) lang.
Six-pence worth [1]	.	O.E. sex-peninga (gen.) wyrðe.
Three-miles broad	.	O.E. þreora-mila (gen.) brád.
Three-hands higher.		O.E. þrym-mundum (inst.) hýrra.

Obs.—A noun-stem discharging an adverbial-*accusative* function is used after verbs. See § 83, Obs. 1.

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[1] Inasmuch as the adjective ' worth ' requires to be completed by an adverbial, that adverbial is termed an indirect object, when ' worth ' is a complement. See § 66.

90. Adverbial prepositional phrases [§ 84] are constantly used to restrict or define adjectives. These phrases are generally, but by no means always, the conventional rendering of some O.E. case, as may be seen in most of the following examples :—

Mindful *of him*	.	O.E. his (gen.) ge-myndige.
Weary *of travel*	.	O.E. síðes (gen.) wérig.
Devoid *of raiment.*		O.E. hrægles (gen.) þearfa.
Blithe *of mood* .	.	O.E. módes (gen.) blíðe.
Dear *to them* .	.	O.E. him (dat.) leóf.
Full *of bones* .	.	O.E. full bána (gen.).
Guilty *of death.*	.	O.E. deáðes (gen.) scyldig.
Most *of all* .	.	O.E. ealra (gen.) mæst.
Skilful *in books*	.	O.E. bóca (gen.) gleáw.

' He sent the people away. . . glad and merry *in heart*.'—A.V.

' It is thenceforth good *for nothing*.'—A.V.

91. Adverbial Infinitives [§ 85] are often used to restrict or define an adjective of quality. So far as the expression of a thought is concerned, it is a matter of indifference whether we assume this adverbial infinitive to be discharging a dative or locative function; thus in the expression ' Mighty to save,' we may take the infinitive as discharging a dative function, and make ' mighty to save ' = mighty *for the purpose of saving ;* or we may take it as discharging a locative function, and make ' mighty to save ' = mighty *in the sphere of saving.*

Hence it is not surprising that different languages have gravitated towards one or other of these uses.

Thus, when we notice that the Latin supine in ' —u ' is in reality a locative case of the oldest known form of the Aryan infinitive,[1] we see that the Romans were disposed to restrict

[1] The supine in ' —um ' corresponds in form with the Sanskrit infinitive. Hence it represents the accusative case of the same ancient Aryan verbal-

their adjectives by a locative infinitive, as in 'difficilis *factu*' = difficult *to do* = difficult *in the sphere of performance ;*—'turpe *dictu*' = shameful *to say* = shameful *in the sphere of discourse.*

An occasional tendency to attach a locative force to this adverbial infinitive in our own language is apparent in the addition of the preposition 'at' [contracted into 'a'] before the infinitives 'do' and 'steal' in

'He agreed without more *a-do.*'

'Ware we never wont *a stele.*'—Morris, p. 218.

But, though this is observable in English between 1250 and 1485, yet the presence of the preposition 'to' in modern English and the constant addition of the dative inflection in O.E., show that the genius of the English language inclines to attach a dative force to this adverbial infinitive. Thus

Wholesome *to eat*   = Wholesome *for eating.*
Beautiful *to look upon* = Beautiful *for looking upon.*
Fit *to go*   = Fit *for going.*
Good *to drink*   = Good *for drinking.*
Sufficient *to last*   = Sufficient *for lasting.*

The O.E. dative termination is seen in the following sentences :—

'—þæs gescý neom ic wyrðe tó beren*ne*' = —Whose shoes I am not worthy *to bear.*

'Hwæðer is éðre tó secgen*ne*...Árís—' = Whether is easier *to say*...Arise—.

'Ic eom gearn tó faren*ne* mid þé' = I am ready *to go* with thee.

'Hit is sceamu tó tellan*ne*, ac hit ne þúhte him nán sceamu tó dón*ne*' = 'It is shameful *to tell*, but it appeared to him no shame *to do.*'—A. S. Chronicle.

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noun of which the supine in '—u' is the locative, and of which Sanskrit has even preserved some traces of a dative. See Monier Williams's *Sanskrit Gr.* § 867.

Obs.—The Notional pronoun ' It ' often refers to the adverbial infinitive attached to an adjective.   Hence we may have the curious phenomenon of *an infinitive simultaneously discharging a nominative and an adverbial function*, *e.g.* ' It is better for thee *to go* into life with one eye, than, &c.' = *To go* into life with one eye is better for thee, than, &c. = O.E. Betere þé is mid ánum éage on lífe tó gánne [dat. infin.].

The student should however treat such an infinitive as a nominative in his analysis, inasmuch as it is either the subject of the sentence or the apposite of the subject ' It.'

92. Adverbials *are restricted, defined, or modified, by other adverbials* of various kinds.   Thus in

> Very greatly admired,
> Much more worthy,
> Certainly not,

we have the adverbs ' greatly,' ' more,' and ' not,' modified by the other adverbs ' very,' ' much,' and ' certainly.'

Again in

> Greatly above the mark,
> Much before the time,
> Far beyond the rest,

we have adverbial prepositional phrases modified by the adverbs ' greatly,' ' much,' and ' far.'

Again in

> Too proud for begging,
> Too honest for lying,

we have an adverb of degree, ' too,' restricted by adverbial prepositional phrases.

Again in

> Too honest to lie,
> Too good to be left,

we have an adverb of degree, ' too,' restricted in its range by adverbial infinitives.

And lastly we have the demonstrative adverbs regularly defined by adverbial Clauses as is to be seen in § 109.

Obs. 1.—Adverbial Infinitives are modified by adverbials, not by reason of their adverbial functions, but by reason of their verbal character.

Obs. 2.—The adverbial cases, or adverbial case-stems, of non-verbal nouns are restricted or defined as nouns, and not as adverbials.

93. Co-ordination in the Simple Sentence. With the exception of the main finite verb, any word, phrase, or clause, belonging to the simple sentence, may have one or more co-ordinate terms, whose co-ordinate relations are usually indicated by co-ordinate conjunctions (§ 119). As

The *great and glorious* city is destroyed.

We bought a *fast and steady* boat.

He was seen in a *deep and dangerous* bog.

She floated *gracefully and easily* on the waves.

The monsters lay *in the water and on the land.*

'The fault will then not be *mine, but Fate's.*'—Kingsley.

' *Whether he were more wise or stout, &c.*'—*Hudibras.*

'His tawny beard was th' equal grace, *both of his wisdom and his face.*'—*Hudibras.*

94. Having now completed our survey of the Simple sentence, we proceed to enlarge our system of **Analytic Marks** so as to include the elements which have been added to those contained in the Primary sentence.

SINGLE FUNCTIONS.

Functional Element.	*Mark.*
Main Subject	▬▬▬▬▬
Additions to ,, ...	————
Main Verb	∿∿∿∿∿∿∿
ns to ,, ...	～～～～～

Functional Element.	*Mark.*
Main Object [cog. or dir.]	– – – – – – – – – – –
Additions to „ . . .	- - - - - - - - - - -
Main Indirect Object . .	〰〰*v.*〰〰
. Additions to „ „ .	〰〰*v.*〰〰

DOUBLE FUNCTIONS.

a. Subordinating apposites, attributes, and adverbial-attributes.

Of Main Subject	〰〰〰〰
„ „ Object [cog. or dir.] . .	〰〰〰〰
„ „ Indirect Object . .	〰〰*v.*〰〰
„ „ Other Noun [mark above the word] . . .	〰〰〰〰

β. Co-ordinating apposites, attributes, and adverbial attributes.

Of Main Subject	〰〰〰〰
„ „ Object [cog. or dir.] . .	〰〰〰〰
„ „ Indirect Object . . ,	〰〰*v.*〰〰
„ „ Other Noun [mark above the word]	〰〰〰〰

γ. Complements, having originated in β, are distinguished by a simple inversion of the β marks, thus

Of Main finite copula, agreeing with
     Subject . . . . ~~~~~~~~~~~~

Of Infinitive   ⎧ agreeing with subj. . ~~~~~~~~~~~
    copula   ⎨   ,,   ,,   obj.. . ~~~~~~~~~~~
            ⎩   ,,   ,,   ind. obj. ~~~~~~.~~~~~~

N.B.—It is seldom advisable to use the last three marks unless some such expansion of the mark system be in use as that described in § 124.

δ. Quotations placed within double inverted commas.

Ellipses supplied outside single inverted commas, or within brackets.

Connections indicated by hyphens, dashes, or prolongations of the Mark, according as the Student finds convenient.

NOTE :—The periphrastic tenses and moods are all treated as if single verbs, and the verb 'do' may be allowed to sink into its following infinitive. The numerals placed below a mark are meant to call attention to the section which explains.

William the Conqueror was despotic.
              71

I have a hope that all is well.
             71

It is pleasant to be praised by all.
              71

He shot it flying.
76

I the last go-forth companionless.
73   77

I have-made ready my dinner.
77

He attained peace with honour.
81

The campaign lasted three years.
46

We saw the ship sink
55

She tried to be good.
85

Lessons being ended, the boys ran-out.
86

It would be better-for-you to stay.
91, 71

The great and glorious city lay before the foe.
93   84

He was dressed in black and white.
93

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

95. The **Complex Sentence** only differs from the simple sentence in having one or more of its non-essential elements represented by dependent clauses, of which there are three kinds, viz.

> the Substantival or Noun clause   § 96–100.
> the Adjectival or Relative clause   § 101–107.
> the Adverbial or Subordinate clause § 108–115.

96. The **Substantival or Noun clause** is best considered here, although we have seen that it may occur in a primary sentence as subject or object of a verb. Where-ever this sort of clause is used, it occupies the position and discharges the functions of a substantival or noun ; hence its name. The noun clause, although by no means invariably depending on a verb of assertion, petition, or inquiry, is invariably constructed as if it did so. It therefore appears under three forms, sufficiently illustrated in § 34, viz.

> the Oblique Assertion   § 97.
>   ,,   ,,   Petition   § 98.
>   ,,   ,,   Question   § 99.

97. An **Oblique Assertion** [§ 34] is usually marked, and can always be marked, by the demonstrative 'that,' *e.g.*

'That you are here is well known.'

'He knows [that] you are here.'

'Me thinke [that] I coulde gesse, &c.' [see § 37, Obs. 2].

Obs. 1.— The clause, which is introduced by 'but (that),' is not Substantival but Adverbial. Whether the 'but' be taken as a preposition or conjunction, we have in such a construction a protasis, *e.g.* 'I have no

hope *but that* he will succeed ' = I have no hope, if it be not that he
will succeed. ' 1 question not *but* several English readers will be much
startled.'—Addison = I question not, if it be not that several English
readers, &c.' See also § 112, γ. The demonstrative ' that ' is sometimes
preceded by a meaningless ' how.' See § 104, Obs. 3.

Obs. 2.—Although it is convenient to take the ' that ' of the noun clause
as a mere Mark, it is not really so. It is in reality a demonstrative pronoun
discharging a nominative or objective function, and the noun clause is in
reality standing in apposition to it. The appositional character of the noun
clause is proved by our power of bracketing out that which in reality
constitutes the noun clause, *e.g.* ' That [you are mistaken] is certain.'
' They said that [he would go].' ' The story is that [the enemy is fled].'
The value of being aware of this appositional character lies in the fact that
such knowledge enables the student at once to distinguish the ' that ' of a
noun clause from the ' that ' of an adverbial clause [§ 113, Obs. 5],—for the
adverbial clause cannot be bracketed out from its ' that.'

98. An Oblique Petition [§ 34] is usually marked by the same ' that,' as serves for the oblique assertion.

Obs.—It is usually impossible to distinguish an oblique petition from an
oblique hypothetical assertion, except by noticing whether the verb or noun
on which the clause depends is a verb or noun of petition or not. Thus in
' He begged that she might go,' and ' He said [= asserted] that she might
go,' the clause ' — that she might go ' is only recognized in the former case
as an oblique petition by reason of its dependence on the verb of petition,
' begged '; and in the latter case as an oblique hypothetical assertion by
reason of its dependence on the verb of assertion, ' said.'[1]

99. An Oblique Question [§ 34], if we except ' whether,' invariably contains the same Interrogative which appears or might appear in the corresponding direct question.

Obs. 1.—It is often impossible to distinguish an oblique question from
an adjectival clause introduced by a complex-relative [§ 104], except by
noticing whether there is some special indication of the presence of an
Inquiry or not. Thus in ' He asked how you did it,' and ' He saw how
you did it,' the clause ' — how you did it ' is in the former case at once
seen to be an oblique question, by reason of its dependence on the verb of

---

[1] The verb ' to say ' is sometimes a verb of petition. When so used, to
say = to command, *e.g.* I said [= commanded] that you were to go.

I

inquiry, 'asks'; but in the latter case we take it as a complex relative-clause in which the complex-relative 'how ' = the way how *v.* the way in which. For more on this see § 104, Obs. 1.

Obs. 2.—Many direct questions have no interrogative particles, *e.g.* 'Is it wet?' In casting such questions into an oblique form, we must assume that the direct form presents us with two alternative questions, *e g.* 'Is it wet, or is it not wet?' and these alternatives must be marked by, or rather be placed in apposition to, the alternative interrogative 'whether,' *e.g.* 'Whether is it wet, or not?' There is then no difficulty in passing it into the oblique form, as in 'I ask whether it is wet.' For more on 'Whether,' see § 65, Obs. 1.

The subordinate conjunction 'If' is frequently used in *oblique* questions as an interrogative pronoun equivalent to 'whether,' *e.g.* 'I only asked if [= whether] it was wet.' If however what would be an indicative mood in the direct 'whether'-clause, is seen to be a subjunctive in the 'if'-clause, the conditional character of the latter clause is established. Thus in Tennyson's line 'She'll not tell me if she *love* me,' the use of the subjunctive 'love' instead of the indicative 'loves' proves that the 'if' clause is a protasis, and not the oblique rendering of 'Does she love me?'

Both 'whether' and 'if,' thus used, are in analysis best taken merely as marks of alternative questions.

100. A Contraction of the Noun clause often takes place, when the subject of the said clause has been anticipated by the subject, direct object, or indirect object of the governing verb, as

I hope that I shall succeed = I hope to succeed.

I noticed him that he was mad = I noticed him to be mad.

I begged of them that they would come = I begged of them to come.

I inquired how I should do it = I inquired how to do it.

When this contraction follows a direct object we have the phenomenon of the well-known classical construction, known as the " Acc. c. Infin." But for more on this see § 41, Obs. 1 and 2.

101. The **Adjectival, Attributive,** or **Relative clause** is the grammatical equivalent of an adjective in all respects

save that of forming a complement.   Hence its functions may
be tabulated in accordance with those of the adjective in § 74,
and appear as

Epithetic   attributive clauses, § 105.
Subordinating   ,,   ,,   § 106.
Co-ordinating   ,,   ,,   § 107.

This clause is called a Relative clause, because *it relates to
some antecedently described person or thing*, which for this reason
is called the Antecedent.   The relative clause contains a
pronoun, pronominal adjective, or pronominal adverb, which
serves to attach it to the antecedent.   Such words are for this
reason distinguished as relative pronouns, relative adjectives,
and relative adverbs ; although it is often convenient to speak
of them all simply as 'relatives.'   The Relative is a word
discharging some definite function within the relative clause
and in this it differs from a conjunction, which discharges no
function in the co-ordinate or subordinate clause which it
introduces.   Thus while the relative may be compared to the
hooked end of something which is to be attached ; a conjunction
may be compared to a *loose link* serving to connect two com-
plete and independent bodies, thus

RELATIVE HOOK.   CONJUNCTIVE LINK.
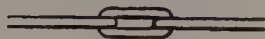
Before discussing the three classes of relative clause, it is
necessary to devote two sections to the separate consideration
of the Relative and the Antecedent.

102. The Relatives in Old English were, speaking broadly,

identical with, or derived from, the demonstratives, just
as if

that	=	that	or	who v. which.
thence	=	thence	,,	whence.
there	=	there	,,	where.
thither	=	thither	,,	whither.
then	=	then	,,	when.
the	=	the	,,	why.
thus	=	thus	,,	how.

but of all these only 'that' retains its position as a relative.

In Old English the demonstrative pronoun 'that' (þæt) was
regularly declined, and a glance at that declension (see § 108,
Obs. 3) is enough to show that several of the demonstrative
adverbs are really old oblique cases of the said demonstrative.
Thus our adverb 'there' answers to the feminine, dative,
singular, þǽre; and 'then' answers to the masculine, accusa-
tive, singular, þone. When in O.E. this declined demonstrative
was used as a relative, such a relative exhibited not only the
gender and number of its antecedent, but also the case
appropriate to the verb contained in the relative clause.
Such a construction was however infrequent, and as a general
rule the relative was represented by þe [a weakened and un-
inflected form of þa, the stem of þæt], as we see in 'þá þing þe
þæs Caseres ·synd' = the things that be Cæsar's. 'Ic eom
Josep eówer bróðor þe ge sealdon' = I am Joseph your brother
whom ye sold.

In modern English, with the exception of 'whether,' the
whole of the interrogatives tabulated in § 65 are to be found as
relatives,—although 'what' is so rarely thus used that it is best
to exclude it from the number.

Lastly we sometimes find 'as' and 'but' used as relatives
discharging a nom. or acc. function. The various case functions
discharged by the relatives may be tabulated as follows :—

			RELATIVE PRONOUNS.			REL. ADVERBS.		REL. ADJS.
	as	but	that	who(-ever)	which(-ever).			.... whichever · ·· .... (the) which
Nom. · ·	as	—	that	who(-ever)	which(-ever).			
Acc. · ·	as	—	that	whom	which(-ever).			
Gen. · ·	—	—	that (of)	whose / of whom	whose. of which.		whereof.	
Dat. · ·	—	—	that...(to v. for)	to v. for whom,	$\{$ to v. for / which $\}$ = why(-ever),		wherefore.	
Abl. · ·	—	—	that...(from)	from whom,	from which = whence.			
Instr. · ·	—	—	that ..(by v. with)	by v. with whom,	$\{$ by v. with / which $\}$ = how(-ever),		$\{$ whereby. / wherewith $\}$	
Loc. · ·	—	—	that...(at v. in)	at v. in whom,	$\{$ at v. in / which $\}$ = $\{$ when(-ever), / where(-ever) $\}$,		wherein,[1] whereat.	
Adv. Acc.	—	—	that...(towards)	towards whom,	$\{$ towards / which $\}$ = whither,		whereunto.	

[1] to these may be added 'whereon,' 'whereupon.'

'As' is used for a relative pronoun in standard English after antecedents limited by the adjectives 'such' and 'same,' but only when discharging a nominative or accusative function, *e.g.* 'Men and women ought to busy themselves...on such matters only *as* [*nom.*] are suitable to their respective sex.'—Addison. 'Make me savoury meat such *as* [*acc.*] I love.'—A.V. In vulgar English 'as' is constantly used for a relative, *e.g.* 'Ah! there's no one knows where the shoe pinches but them *as* wears it; and no doubt there's many a 'ed *as* wears a crown *as* trembles for it.'—Arthur Sketchley. This vulgar relative is however of Scandinavian origin; and is quite a different word from the standard relative 'as,' which is identical with the conjunction derived from the contraction of 'also.' See Skeat's *Concise Etymological Dic.*

'But' is sometimes used as a relative pronoun equivalent to 'who, which, *v.* that...not.' This is usually but not necessarily the case after a negative clause, *e.g.* 'Never yet was noble man *but* made ignoble talk' (Tennyson) = —*who* did *not* make ignoble talk. 'Who sees him act, *but* envies every deed' (Pope) = —*who* does *not* envy every deed.

'That,' when used as a demonstrative in O.E. was regularly declined (see § 108, Obs. 3); but, when used as a relative pronoun was usually contracted into þe, an undeclined form, which served for all genders, numbers, and cases. We now possess only the unchanging relative pronoun 'that'; but it is occasionally used by standard authors just as the O.E. þe was used. This is the case, when it is used as if discharging an adverbial function without the aid of a preposition, as in 'I do not know the way *that* [= in which] you did it.' When thus used we shall speak of it as the **Undeclined Relative.** This is however an abnormal construction, and as a rule the preposition appears at the end of the clause, *e.g.* 'I do not know the process *that* you did it *by*.' For standard examples, see § 105.

Obs. 1.—Relatives are to be taken as in the same gender and number as their antecedents, inasmuch as they are either pronouns representing the antecedents, or adjectives added to the repeated antecedent. They are not however necessarily in the same case as the antecedent ; inasmuch as, while the antecedent is discharging one case function to the verb of the main clause, the relative is discharging what is possibly an altogether different case function to the verb of the dependent clause, *e.g.* ' I saw a man [*acc.*], who [*nom.*] wore a white hat.' But even in standard authors, we somtimes encounter **attraction of the relative** into the case of the antecedent, and even **attraction of the antecedent** into the case of the relative, *e.g.* ' The lord of that servant shall come in a day *when* [= that *acc.*] he expecteth not, and in an hour *when* [= that *acc.*] he knoweth not.'¹—R.A.V. ' When *him* we serve's away.'—Shak. = When him [= he], whom we serve, is away. Such abnormal constructions involve an anacoluthon [§ 124].

Obs. 2.—Most of the familiar series of adverbials ' **Whence, where, whither, when, why, how,**' fall under four headings, according to the function they happen to be discharging. Thus

α. They are Relatives [§ 102], when they have an expressed antecedent noun, whether that noun be governed by a preposition or not, *e.g.* ' I know the place *where* you met him.' ' He broke into the house at a time *when* all were asleep.'

β. They are Complex Relatives [§ 104] when they can be resolved into an antecedent noun and relative, *e.g.* ' He described *where* [= the place where] you fell.' But see § 104, Obs. 1.

γ. They are Interrogatives [§ 65], when used in a direct or oblique question, *e.g.* ' *How* did he do it ? ' ' I asked *how* he did it.'

δ. They are Subordinate Conjunctions [§ 108], when they are or can be correlated with their corresponding demonstrative adverb [§ 109], *e.g.* ' I stood [there] *where* you fell.' ' He broke into the house [then] *when* all were asleep.' If however the demonstrative adverb be turned into an adverbial phrase, as in ' I stood [on the place] where you fell,' what had been a subordinate conjunction becomes at once a relative (see a).

103. The Antecedent of a relative clause consists of anything which could be used as a "logical term." But, as the nature of the relative clause is usually determined by the nature of the antecedent, we must revert to the table of logical

¹ The Revisers were not responsible for this attraction of the relative, which exists in the original Greek and is reproduced in the A.V. and Tyndale, but not in Wycliffe who has ' — in the day *that* he hopith not, and our *that* he wot not.'

terms in § 2,—or rather we will re-arrange that table, with a special view to the subject-matter of the present section, as follows:

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="7" style="writing-mode: vertical">Antecedents.</td><td rowspan="3">Class 1.</td><td>Unique, <i>e.g.</i> God, Africa, the Earth, my father, I, thou.
Unique-Collective, <i>e.g.</i> Mankind.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Abstract, <i>e g.</i> Virtue, goodness, painting, to paint; <i>and even an Entire Thought.</i></td></tr>
<tr><td>General, <i>e.g.</i> a man, men, the father, fathers, a virtue, the, virtues, a painting, paintings.</td></tr>
</table>

Class I.
Unique, *e.g.* God, Africa, the Earth, my father, I, thou.
Unique-Collective, *e.g.* Mankind.
Abstract, *e g.* Virtue, goodness, painting, to paint; *and even an Entire Thought.*

Class 2.
General, *e.g.* a man, men, the father, fathers, a virtue, the, virtues, a painting, paintings.
General-Collective, *e.g.* a tribe, a flock, flocks, a class, classes

Class 1 consists of Antecedents which are essentially Singular, inasmuch as there can be no plural either to that which is absolutely unique or to that which is purely abstract. Again, the antecedents of this class are essentially Definite, inasmuch as there can be nothing indefinite in our reference to what is never otherwise than singular.

Class 2 consists of Antecedents which are either Singular or Plural, inasmuch as they consist of designations common to two or more persons or things. Again, the antecedents of this class may be either Definite or Indefinite, inasmuch as we may refer to members of a group either specially or not specially.

Obs.—*Definite Antecedents* of the second class are often distinguished by such usually definitive words as 'the,' 'this,' 'that,' 'these,' 'those,' 'same,' 'such'; and they include the third person of the personal pronouns, used in such a definite sense that 'he *v.* him' = that man, 'she *v.* her' = that woman, 'they *v.* them' = these *v.* those persons or things.—*Indefinite Antecedents* of the second class are often distinguished by such usually indefinite words as 'a', 'an', 'any'; and they include the third person of the personal pronouns used in such an indefinite sense that 'he *v.* him' = any man, 'she *v.* her' = any woman, 'they *v.* them' = any persons or things. They may also be distinguished by their epithetic relative clause containing a protasis, as explained in § 105 Obs.

104. When both the relative and antecedent are contained in one word, we shall speak of that word as a **Complex Relative.** The only forms which are now specially used as complex

relatives, are 'who-so' and 'who-so-ever,' 'what-so' and 'what-so-over,' &c. &c.   With the exception of 'whether' the whole of the Interrogatives tabulated in § 65 are used as complex relatives.   And, lastly, the relative pronoun 'that' is occasionally used in the same way.   Whenever a complex relative occurs it can always, and *for purposes of analysis must always, be resolved* into its appropriate antecedent and relative.   The following table and examples will assist the student in effecting this resolution :—

Complex Relative.	*Antecedent.*	*Relative.*
Pronouns :		
that	= the thing(-s) *v.* person(-s) . .	that
which	= the thing *v.* person	that
what	= the thing(-s)	which
who	= the *v.* any person(-s)	who
whom	= the *v.* any person(-s)	whom
whose	= the *v.* any person(-s)	whose
Adjectives :		
which ——	= the one ——	that
what ——	= the ——	that
dverbs :		
whence	= ⎫	⎧ whence
where	= ⎬ the place	⎨ where
whither	= ⎭	⎩ whither
when	= the time	when
why	= the cause *v.* reason	why
how	= the manner *v.* way	how
Compound Pronouns :		
who-ever	= any person	who
which-ever	= any one	that
what-ever	= any thing	that
Compound Adjectives :		
which-ever ——	= any ——	that
what-ever ——	= any ——	that
Compound Adverbs :		
where-ever	= any place	where
when-ever	= any time	when
why-ever	= any cause *v.* reason	why
how-ever	= any manner *v.* way	how

Complex Relative.	*Antecedent.*	*Relative.*
Compound Pronouns :		
who-so(-ever)	= every person . . . . that	
which-so-ever	= every one . . . . that	
what-so(-ever)	= every thing . . . . that	
Compound Adjectives :		
which-so-ever —	= every —— . . . . that	
what-so-ever ——	= every —— . . . . that	
Composed Adverbs :		
where-so-ever	= every place	where = at which
when-so-ever	= every time	when = at which
how-so-ever	= every manner *v.* way	how = in which
whither-so-ever	= to every place	whither = to which

N.B.—The antecedent may be a noun in the nominative, or be governed by either a verb or an expressed preposition.

' We speak *that* [= the things that] we do know.'—A.V.

' He is *that* [= the person that] he is.'—Shak.

' *Who* [= the person who] was the thane lives yet.'—Shak.

' —till Geraint waving an angry hand as *who* [= a person who] should say, &c.'—Tennyson.

' —with a propriety that none can feel but *who* [= a person who] can lift, &c.'—Cowper.

' Oh, I would I had him here, *the which* [= the person which] did it indite.'—Nicholas Udall.

' I would recommend, *what* [= the things which] I have here said, to the directors.'—Addison.

' These needy persons do not know *what* to talk of' [= the things of which to talk].—Addison.

' Nor was the Legion destitute of *what* [= of the thing which]...would be styled a train of artillery.'—Gibbon.

' At the outset of his reign he stood alone, and *what* work [= that work which] was to be done was done by the king himself.'—Green.

' Saul, at *what* time [= at the time at which] he was sent against Amaleck was refused of God.'—Bp. Latimer.

' Let no man know *where* [= the place where] ye be.'—A.V.

'And he sought *how* [= the way how] he might...betray him.'—A.V.

'—the seed should spring and grow up, he knoweth not *how*' [= the way how it should spring and grow up].—A.V.

'I do not know *whatever* [= anything that] we can do.'

'I will do *whatsoever* [= every thing that] thou sayest unto me.'—A.V.

'To *whomsoever* [= of every person to whom] much is given, of him shall much be required: and to *whom* [= of the person to whom] they commit much, of him will they ask the more.' —R.A.V.

'The fader roos [*i.e.* the father rose], and for they shuld here *what that* [Obs. 3] *he did*,...he went, &c.'—Thomas Occleve.

Obs. 1.—It is often impossible for us to distinguish an Oblique Question from a Complex Relative clause, when the former admits of being replaced by the latter. This difficulty would not exist if exclusively relative [instead of interrogative] forms, were used as complex relatives; or if [as in Latin] a particular mood was used in the construction of the oblique question. Of English clauses containing an ambiguous interrogative-form, those only must *of necessity* be treated as oblique questions, which are associated with some verb or noun of inquiry, or which are as it were the echo of another speaker's inquiry. Of course the interrogative form is not ambiguous when it does not admit of resolution into a relative and antecedent: hence the pronoun 'whether' is always interrogative. Any distinction between *our* oblique questions and complex-relative clauses is however somewhat arbitrary, and not always clearly applicable.

Obs. 2.—A preposition placed before a complex relative sometimes governs only the contained antecedent, *e.g.* 'He told me of who [= of the people who] were there'; sometimes only the contained relative, *e.g.* 'He does not know of what [= the things of which] you spoke;' sometimes both the antecedent and relative separately, *e.g.* 'He gave it to what [= to that object to which] you desired him to give it.' Some standard examples of these usages are given in the above section.

Obs. 3.—**How that** [= how] is a construction of the same nature as that which so much prevailed in Mediæval English, viz. the insertion of a *meaningless* 'that,' not only after Complex Relatives [*e.g.* 'who that,' 'what that,' 'whence that,' 'where that,' 'how that,'], but also after ordinary relatives [*e.g.* 'which that'], after subordinate conjunctions

[*e.g.* 'when that,' 'whilst that,' 'till that,' 'lest that,' 'if that,' 'though that,']—and possibly after oblique interrogatives [*e.g.* 'whose that ']. This led to the still greater absurdity of sometimes prefixing 'how' to an oblique assertion. Thus we have ' **How that** ' [= that] in, 'Affermyng this, *how that* it is a labour spent in vain to love.'—*The Nut Brown Maid*, A.D. 1500.

105. Epithetic Attributive-clauses are relative clauses which limit or define their antecedent. This antecedent is of the 2nd class mentioned in § 103, *i.e.* a definite or indefinite antecedent consisting of a General or General-collective term, or of a pronoun representing them. That the antecedent of an epithetic attributive-clause cannot be of the 1st class is clear, inasmuch as that which is essentially singular does not admit of farther grammatical limitation or definition. The relative pronoun most suitable to the epithetic attributive-clause is 'That,' although any of the relatives may be employed.

Perhaps the best possible example of successive limitations, effected by epithetic attributive-clauses, is furnished by the well-known lines :—' This is the Maiden all forlorn, *that* milked the cow with the crumpled horn, *that* tossed the dog, *that* worried the cat, *that* killed the rat, *that* ate the malt, *that* lay in the house *that* Jack built.' There are doubtless many 'forlorn Maidens' in the world ; but an epithetic attributive-clause limits our attention to a class of such maidens as may have milked cows with 'crumpled horns.' The limitation is carried still farther by removing from consideration all such specimens of horned-cattle as have not 'tossed a dog.' Again the dogs are restricted to those that have worried cats,—the cats to those that have killed rats,—the rats to those that have eaten malt,—and the malt to that which lay in a house built by an individual of the name of 'Jack.' And thus it comes to pass that, by successive limitations, we succeed in identifying the 'forlorn Maiden' beyond all ordinary possibility of mistake.

The following examples of epithetic attributive-clauses have

their antecedents arranged according as they are definite or indefinite :

α. With Definite Antecedents.

'There is another set of men *that I must likewise lay claim to.*'—Addison.

'The moment *that* [= *at which*] *I awake*...I find, &c.*'—Kingsley.

'The gravity of my behaviour...at the time *that* [= *at which*] *I sucked,* seemed to favour my mother's dream.'—Addison.

'I was born to a small hereditary estate which...was bounded by the same hedges and ditches in William the Conqueror's time *that* [= *by which*] *it is at present.*'—Addison.

'It is something *which is all of a piece.*'—Trench.

'They never perceived the gross inconsistency *of which they were guilty.*'—Macaulay.

'Delicacy of hearing and taste of harmony has (sic) been formed upon those sounds *which every country abounds with.*'—Addison.

'He fond a narow passage, *which that* [§ 104, Obs. 3] *he took.*'—John Lydgate.

'They had fled from the post *where God had placed them.*'—Kingsley.

'We see times of change and progress alternating with other times *when life and thought have settled into permanent forms.*'—Froude.

'I come not against thee this day, but against the house *wherewith I have war.*'—A.V.

β. With Indefinite Antecedents.

'No man can rise suitably to his merit, *who is not something of a courtier.*'—Steele.

'An old maid, *that is troubled with the vapours,* produces infinite disturbances.'—Addison.

'There is scarce a thinking man *but* [= who...not] *lives*

under a secret impatience of the hurry and fatigue he suffers.'—
Steele.

'No author *that I know of* has written professedly upon it.'
—Addison.

'Like a lion, *which has been made so tame that men may lead him about by a thread,* I am dragged up and down.'—Macaulay.

'There is no place of general resort *wherein I do not often make my appearance.'*—Addison.

'He [= any man] *that hath ears to hear,* let him hear.'—A.V.

'Whoever [= any person *who] wishes to be well acquainted with the morbid anatomy of governments,* whoever [= any person *who] wishes to know how great states may be made feeble and wretched,* should study the history of Spain.'—Macaulay.

'Whatsoever [= every thing *that] is right,* I will give.'—
A.V.

Obs.—Although the clause following an indefinite antecedent is most properly classed as an Epithetic, *whenever it limits the antecedent ;* yet we must not overlook the fact that it approaches very near to a Subordinate Attributive-clause, inasmuch as it can always be replaced by a conditional or concessive protasis, *e.g.* 'No man can rise suitably to his merit, *who* [= if he] *is not something of a courtier.'* The power of substituting a protasis for a relative clause is in fact one of the tests by which to prove the indefinite nature of a restricted antecedent (see § 103, Obs.).

106. Subordinate Attributive-clauses are relative clauses, which, while they neither limit nor define their antecedent, serve indirectly to modify some verb or verbal. They are in fact adverbials under an adjectival form ; and in them the

Relative = Subord. conj. + personal pron. or demonstrative.

The antecedent of this kind of clause may be of either the 1st or 2nd class mentioned in § 103, and either definite or indefinite. The relative pronoun least suitable to it is ' That,' although any of the relatives may be and are employed by standard authors.

With 1st class antecedents.

' The French have therefore refined too much upon Horace's rule, *who* [= inasmuch as he] *never designed to banish all kinds of death from the stage.*'—Addison.

' Pepin...made...a solemn reference to the pope as to the deposition of Childeric III., *under whose* [= although...under his] *nominal authority he himself reigned.*'—Hallam.

' When I, *that* [= because I] *knew him fierce and turbulent*, refused her to him.'—Tennyson.

With 2nd class antecedents.

α. Definite.

' She . was...almost frightened out of her wits by the great house dog *that* [= because it] *howled in the stable,...when she lay ill with the tooth ache.*'—Addison.

' In utter abasement I confessed myself lower than the brutes, *who* [= inasmuch as they] *had a law and obeyed it.*'—Kingsley.

β. Indefinite.

' And the barge with oar and sail moved from the brink, like some full-breasted swan *that* [= when she] *ruffles her pure cold plume and takes the flood.*'—Tennyson.

Obs.—Epithetic attributive clauses can be replaced by adverbial clauses [viz. by protases], when the antecedent is *Indefinite;* but they are rightly classed as Epithetics *because they limit* their antecedents. See § 105, Obs.

107. **Co-ordinating Attributive-clauses** are relative clauses, which, while they neither limit nor define their antecedent, serve to introduce a co-ordinate thought. They are in fact the considerably developed germs of co-ordinate clauses under an adjectival form ; and in them the

Relative = Co-ord. conj. + personal pron. or demonstrative.

The antecedent of this kind of clause may be of either the 1st or 2nd class mentioned in § 103, and either definite or.

indefinite. The relative pronoun least suitable to it is 'That,' although it is sometimes used even by good authors.

With 1st class antecedents.

a. Unique.

'So fared it with Geraint, *who* [= and he] *thought and said, Here by God's grace is the one voice for me.*'—Tennyson.

'The Sun-god, *whom* [= and him] *he loved*, took him to himself.'—Kingsley.

'Seeing it is one God, *which* [= and he, R.A.V.] *shall justify, &c.*'—A.V.

β. Abstract.

'He likes to play *which* [= and it] *indeed most boys do* [*like*].

'I despatched my dinner..., *when* [= and then] *to my utter confusion the lady...desired me, &c.*'—Addison.

'A rough census was taken at the time of the Armada, *when* [= and then] *the population was found to be something under five millions.*'—Froude.

With 2nd class antecedents.

a. Definite.

'I have passed my latter years in this city, *where* [= and there *v.* in it] *I am frequently seen.*'—Addison.

'The emperors of Constantinople were not too proud to confer upon Clovis the titles of consul and patrician, *which* [= and those titles] *he was too prudent to refuse.*'—Hallam.

β. Indefinite.

'There is a cooling breeze, *which* [= and it] *crisps the broad clear river.*'—Byron.

'Himself beheld three spirits mad with joy come dashing down on a tall wayside flower, *that* [= and it] *shook beneath them.*'—Tennyson.

' I have acted in all the parts of my life as a looker-on, *which* [= and this] *is the character I intend to preserve.*'—Addison.

' It was the Phœnicians *who* [= and they] *invented writing.*'

' Frances was left for a moment in a parlour, *where* [= and there] *she sank down on a chair.*'—Macaulay.

108. Adverbial or Subordinate clauses are clauses discharging *some* of the adverbial functions described in § 82. These functions are chiefly indicated by the subordinate conjunctions which link [see end of § 101] these clauses to the verb, adjective, or adverb, they serve to limit or define. Hence the following table of the subordinate conjunctions serves also to classify the adverbial clauses.

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

Place .
- Ablation :—whence.
- Location :—where, where-ever, where-so-ever.
- Destination :—whither, whithersoever.

Time .
- Location :—when, as, now that, so soon as, as soon as, since, or = before, before [that], ere [that], or ever [that], after [that].
- Duration :—while, whilst, the while that, so long as, as long as, since, ever since, till, until.
- Repetition :—when, whenever, whensoever, as often as, &c.

Cause .
- Initial Cause —because, as, inasmuch as, for as much as, whereas, since, that, for [that], in that, seeing [that], considering [that], lest [*after the verb 'fear'*] = because c. Conj. mood.
- Final Cause :—that, in order [that], to the end [that], in case [that], lest = in order that...not.
- Condition —if, an(d), unless, except, without, save [that], but [that], suppose [that], grant [that], supposing [that], granting [that], allowing [that], provided [that], whether.. or, so.
- Concession :—though, although, albeit, if.. not, if = though, notwithstanding [that], supposing [that], granting [that], allowing [that], whether   or.

K

Manner. {
Similarity :—as, just as, as well as, according as, like [as], even as, as if, as though, in proportion as, how, the, (so) ...as, (as) ..as.
Dissimilarity :—than.
Effect :—(so) ..that, so that, that.
}

Obs. 1. The student, who desires to obtain a thorough knowledge of English, will do well to notice the Old English equivalents of these subordinate conjunctions. The most common are as follows :—

Place . {
Ablation —þanon = whence.
Location :—þær = where.
Destination :—þær = whither ; swá hwæder swá = whithersoever.
}

Time . {
Location —þonne = when ; ær þám þe = before.
Duration :—þenden = whilst ; þá [hwíle þe] = whilst ; mid þám þe = whilst ; mid þý þe = whilst ; swá forð óðče = until ; óð þæt = until ; siððan = since ; swá lange swá = as long as.
Repetition —þanecan þe = whensoever.
}

Cause . {
Initial Cause —for þám þe = because ; for þý þe = because, þý = because ; þæt = because.
Final Cause —to þón þæt = in order that ; to þám þæt = in order that ; þæt = that ; þý læs þe = lest.
Condition .—gif v. gyf = if ; bútan = unless, same, except, nemne = unless.
Concession :—þeáh þe = though, although.
}

Manner {
Similarity .—swá = as ; swylce = as if, as though ; swá...swá = so . as ; swá...swá = as ; þe = in proportion as.
Dissimilarity .—þonne = than.
Effect :—swá ..þæt = so . that ; swá þæt = so that ; þæt = that.
}

Obs. 2.—The origin and rationale of most of our Adverbial clauses, may be discovered with tolerable certainty. Thus—

a. those clauses which are connected by the subordinate conjunctions 'whence,' 'where,' 'where-ever,' 'whither,' 'whithersoever,' 'when,' 'when-ever,' 'while,' 'whilst,' 'how,' 'whether,' 'as,' have clearly originated in Relative clauses with a *suppressed antecedent* forming part of an adverbial clause, see § 102, Obs. 2, 3.

β. those which are connected by the subordinate conjunctions 'while' = during the time, because = by that cause, originated in Relative clauses

with a *suppressed relative* and an *expressed antecedent*. Thus in O.E. we have

Gáð [Walk], þá hwile [during the while] þe [during which] ge [ye] leóht [light] habbon [have]. And the full construction of 'Because' may be illustrated by, 'I will go because you have asked' = I will go for [or by] that cause, for [or by] which you have asked.

γ. those which are connected by the subordinate conjunctions 'in order that,' 'so that,' 'so .as,' 'as . as,' 'the...the,' 'lest,' originated in Relative clauses, containing in a more or less obscure form *both the relative and antecedent*, Thus 'I did it in order [*antecedent*] that [*uninflected relative*] you might come' = I did it in that order in which you might come. 'She so [*demonstrative antecedent*] sang that [*uninflected relative*] all were delighted' = She sang by that degree by which all were delighted. 'He was not so [*demon. antecedent*] pleased as [*relative*] I was' = He was not pleased by that amount by which I was pleased. 'The [*relative*] more people there are, the [*demonstr. antecedent*] merrier we shall be' = We shall be merrier by that amount, by which there are more people. 'I called lest [O.E. þý læs þe] you should lose your way' = *lit.* I called by that [degree] less, by which you should lose your way. But such attempts at restoring long lost idioms often result in what is almost unintelligible and is certainly no longer English.

δ. those which are connected by the subordinate conjunctions 'before [that],' 'ere [that],' 'after [that],' 'for [that],' 'without [that],' 'but [that],' originated in Relative clauses *whose now lost antecedents were governed by a preposition, and whose once uninflected relative* [þe] *may possibly be represented by the 'that.'* This is seen in the O.E. 'Ic geseah þé,...ær þám [tíman] þe Philippus þé clypode'

> = I saw thee,...ere that [time] that [= at which] Philip called thee.
> = I saw thee,...ere [that time] that Philip called thee.
> = I saw thee, ..ere [that time that] Philip called thee.

ε. those which are connected by the subordinate conjunctions 'suppose [that],' 'grant [that],' 'except [that]' were in all probability originally *Noun clauses standing in the objective relation after Imperatives.* Hence such protases must once have been co-ordinate main clauses in the imperative mood.

ζ. those which are connected by the subordinate conjunctions 'seeing [that],' 'considering [that],' 'supposing [that],' 'notwithstanding [that],' 'provided [that],' &c., were originally *Noun clauses standing in the objective relation after Participles.*

η. those which are introduced by the subordinate conjunction 'than,' formed originally *the Main clause;* while that, which is now the main

K 2

clause, was formerly an adverbial clause of Time. This is explained in § 113, Obs. 4.

θ. those which are introduced by the subordinate conjunctions 'as if,' 'as though,' are *the conditional protases of a suppressed apodosis*, consisting of an adverbial clause of Similarity. This apodosis is indicated within brackets in the following sentence. 'He did it, as [he would have done it] if your eye had been upon him.'

Obs. 3. In the O.E. equivalents of our subordinate conjunctions [see Obs. 1] the O.E. demonstrative pronoun appears in various cases, genders, and numbers, according to its own function and the gender or number of the expressed or understood noun to which it refers. Thus þá = while [i.e. during that time, or during which time] is in the accusative, because the adverbial accusative expresses Duration [§ 46]; and it is in the feminine, because the understood noun 'while' = time, is feminine. The following is the O.E. declension of the Demonstrative 'That.'

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	Mas.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*	*Neut.*
Nom.	se	seó	þæt	þá	þá	þá
Acc.	þone	þá	þæt	þá	þá	þá
Gen.	þæs	þǽre	þæs	þára	þára	þára
Dat.	þǽm v. þám þǽre þǽm v. þám			þǽm v. þám þǽm v. þám þǽm v. þám		
Inst.	þý	þǽre þý				

In O.E., the Demonstrative was used for the Relative [§ 102], as in 'forðám þú mínum wordum ne gelýfðest, þá [relative] beoð on hyra tíman gefyllede' = because thou didst not believe my words, which [relative] should be fulfilled in their time. But as a general rule the demonstrative when used as a *relative was represented by* þe [§ 102], which served for *any* case, gender, or number; just as we have seen our own relative 'That' occasionally used; see examples in § 105.

109. Adverbial Clauses *continued.* Every subordinate conjunction, derived from or formed out of a Relative, admits of, and sometimes requires, **Correlation** with its corresponding Demonstrative [§ 102, Obs. 2, δ],—if such a demonstrative exists in the language. Thus an adverbial clause introduced by

whence	correlates with the demonstrative adverb				thence.
where	,,	,,	,,	,,	there.
whither	,,	,,	,,	,,	thither.
when	,,	,,	,,	,,	then.
how	,,	,,	,,	,,	thus.
the [þý]	,,	,,	,,	,,	the [þý].
as	,,	,,	,,	,,	so *v.* as.

With the exception of 'the' and 'so' *v.* 'as,' these demonstrative Adverbs seldom appear : but when they do appear, the adverbial clause is in reality defining such adverbs, rather than limiting a verb, as

' *Then, when the farmer passed into the field,* he spied her.'— Tennyson.

110. Adverbial clauses of Place are illustrated by the following quotations.

a. Ablation :—

' Let me alone...before I go *whence I shall not return.*'—A.V.

β. Location :—

' *Where Claribel low lieth,* the breezes pause and die.'— Tennyson.

γ. Destination :—

' Thou shalt let her go *whither she will.*'—A.V.

' I will follow thee *whithersoever thou goest.*'—A.V. = in O.E. Ic fylige þé swá hwæder swá þú færst.

Obs.—' Where ' is frequently used in the sense of ' whither,' as in ' You can go *where you wish.*'

111. Adverbial clauses of Time are illustrated by the following quotations.

α. Location :—

' *When he is come*, he will tell us all things.'—A.V. = in O.E. þonne he cymð, he cýð ús ealle þing.

' *Whan that* [§ 104, Obs. 3] *she saugh his mortal woundes*, she hadde routh [*i.e.* pity].'—John Lydgate.

'I dispatched my dinner *as soon as I could*.'—Addison.

'I threw away my rattle *before I was two months old*.'—Addison.

' *After that I have spoken*, mock on.'—A.V.

'He was slain *or he could come at him*.'—Lord Berners.

'And the lions...brake all their bones in pieces, *or ever they came at the bottom of the den*.'—A.V.

'Come down, *ere my child die*.'—A.V. = in O.E. Fǽr, ǽr mín sunu swelte.

β. Duration :—

'Why are we weighed upon with heaviness,...*while all things else have rest*.'—Tennyson.

' *As we pause at this last resting place*, let us look.'—Dean Stanley.

'Sometimes she had beckoned him to her side *as she sat in some retired arbour*.'—Kingsley.

'I would not make use of my coral *until they had taken away the bells from it*.'—Addison.

γ. Repetition :—

'He can smile *when* [= whenever] *one speaks to him*.'—Steele.

112. Adverbial clauses of Cause are illustrated in the following sentences.

α. Initial Cause.

'The hireling fleeth, *because he is an hireling*.'—A.V. = in O.E. Se hýra flyhð, forðám þe he bið ahýrod.

'It is for the good of the audience when he is at a play, *for the actors have an ambition to please him.*'—Steele.

'And, *for-that wine is dear*, we will be furnished with our own.'—Cowper.

'But fear not, *for-that I am soft.*'—Byron.

'*As few of his thoughts are drawn from business*, they are most of them fit for conversation.'—Steele.

'Dost not thou fear God, *seeing thou art in the same condemnation ?*'—A.V. = in O.E. Ne þú God ne ondrǽtst, þæt þú eart on þǽre ylcan genyðerunge?

'I...reverence him...*in that he seemed to me, &c.*'—Ben Jonson.

'*Since I have neither time nor inclination to communicate the fulness of my heart in speech*, I am resolved to do it in writing.'—Addison.

'Thou thinkest him a hero, *that* [= because] *he shed blood by oceans.*'—Byron.

β. Final Cause.

'He must labour his life long under the imputation of being utterly unrighteous, *in order that his disinterestedness may be thoroughly tested.*'—Kingsley.

'They cast out their young children, *to the end that they might not live.*'—A.V.

'These things I say *that ye might be saved.*'—A.V. = in O.E. þás þing ic secge, þæt ge sýn hále.

'Sin no more, *lest a worse thing come unto thee.*'—A.V. = in O.E. Ne synga þú, þý-læs-þe þé sumum þingum wyrs getíde.

'And God fulfils himself in many ways, *lest one good custom should corrupt the world.*'—Tennyson.

'And gret dout, lest that [§ 104, Obs. 3] he were dede.'—John Lydgate.

γ. Condition.

'*If Punch grows extravagant*, I shall reprimand him.'—Addison.

'*If thou let this man go*, thou art not Cæsar's friend.'—A V
= in O.E. Gif þú hine forlǽtst, ne eart þú þæs Caseres
freónd.

'*If that* [§ 104, Obs. 3] *you conquer*, I live to joy in your
great triumph.'—Byron.

'I wyll let [= hinder] that hontyng *yf that I may*.'—*Chevy
Chase.*

'I am resolved to observe an exact neutrality....*unless I
shall be forced to declare myself*.'—Addison.

'Fool, catch me *an thou canst*.'—Ford.

'*And you love me*, let's do't.'—Shakspere.

'*And so* [? = if only] *there lived some colour in your cheek*,
there is not one among my gentlewomen were fit to wear your
slipper for a glove.'—Tennyson.

'*Except ye see signs and wonders*, ye will not believe.'—A.V
= in O.E. Búton ge tácna and fóre-beácna geseón, ne gelýfe ge.

'Yet what is Death, *so it be but glorious?* 'Tis a sunset.'—
Byron.

'They never changed their chains *but* [= without] [they
changed them] *for their armour*.'—Byron.

'She has no existence *but* [= without] [she has it] *when she
is looked upon*.'—Addison.

'*So I were out of prison and kept sheep*, I should be as merry
as the day is long.'—Shakspere.

δ. Concession.

'I am afraid they would be able to rout our whole fraternity,
though we were accompanied with our guard.'—Addison.

'*Yff* [*i.e.* If] *I shulde dye with the*, yet wyll I not denye the.'
—Tyndale.

'Ye say, The Lord saith it, *albeit I have not spoken*.'—A.V.

'And ignorance, *whether* [it be] *unavoidable or voluntary*,
will, just as much and just as little, excuse, &c.'—Bp. Butler.

'*Though that* [§ 104, Obs. 3] *I...a barons doughter bee*, yet
haue you proued how I you loued.'—*Nut Brown Maid.*

Obs. 1.—The clause expressive of Final Cause [*i.e.* of a Purpose] lends itself most naturally to the expression of the Oblique Petition. We see this in Latin, where the Final clause, constructed with 'ut c. Subj.,' has come to be the standard form of the oblique petition. The same phenomenon is observable in O.E. where 'þæt c. subj.' serves in the same double capacity, so that

'Cweð þæt þás stánas to hláfe gewurðon'

= Command $\begin{cases}\text{that these stones become bread [\textit{oblique petition}], or}\\\text{in order that these stones may become bread [\textit{final clause}].}\end{cases}$

And in Modern English, when only 'that' is used, the clause may be either an adverbial final clause or a substantival oblique petition, although it is best to take it as being the latter. Such a transition is analogous to that of the Infinitive after verbs of Petition, &c. described in § 47. The *rationale* of this double use is found in the consideration that there is *no practical difference between the Purpose and the Purport of a petition*,—for the purpose, which I have in giving a command, is revealed in the command itself.

Obs. 2.—Every fully expressed Hypothetical sentence must contain at least two clauses, of which one called the **Protasis** [πρότασις], tells the condition or concession, and the other called the **Apodosis** [ἀπόδοσις], tells the consequence or its reverse. An Apodosis, when fully expressed, may consist of a main clause or of *any kind*[1] of dependent clause; but a Protasis, when fully expressed, invariably consists of a Conditional or Concessive clause, marked as such either by an appropriate subordinate conjunction, or by an inversion which supersedes the use of the conjunction, as

I would have done it, $\begin{cases}\text{if you had asked me.}\\\text{had you asked me.}\end{cases}$

I would have done it, $\begin{cases}\text{tho' you had hated me for it.}\\\text{had you hated me for it.}\end{cases}$

Although the Conditional and Concessive protases are identical in form, they are opposite in force, as we may prove by turning the main and subordinate clauses into two co-ordinate clauses, thus,

'If you ask for it, you shall have it.' = Ask for it, *and* you shall have it.

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[1] Even the protasis of a superior clause, as in 'The fact mentioned may bear a meaning far more favourable to the state of the country, although, if such a phenomenon were to occur at the present time, it could admit of but one interpretation.'—Froude; where the 'if'-clause is a conditional protasis of which the apodosis is an 'although'-clause, *i.e.* the concessive protasis to the main clause.

'Though you dislike it, you must do it.' = You dislike it, *but* you must do it.

Hence the difference between a conditional and a concessive clause answers to the difference between 'and' and 'but.' Again, that a conditional protasis has an exactly opposite force to a concessive protasis is clear, when we observe that an apodosis, which is *affirmative* after a conditional protasis, becomes *negative* after a concessive protasis ; and *vice versâ*, as in

> If I am not weak, I can fight [consequence].
> Though I am not weak, I can *not* fight [reverse of consequence].

> If I am weak, I can *not* run [consequence].
> Though I am weak, I can run [reverse of consequence].

Obs. 3.—The Realizability of the thought contained in the apodosis varies in many degrees. In spite of a widespread disregard of such niceties of speech even among standard authors, these may be expressed with considerable delicacy by a proper use of moods and tenses. Thus we can indicate

1. The Certain realization of the apodosis ·

    a. on condition of a fact, *e.g.* 'Thou art happy, if she is absent.'
    β. in spite   „ „ „   *e.g.* '   „   „   „   tho' „ „   „   '

2. The Possible realization of the apodosis ·

    a. on condition of a possibility, *e.g.* 'Thou art happy, if she be absent.'
    β. in spite   „ „   „   *e.g.* '   „   „   „   tho' „ „   „   '

3. The Supposed realization of the apodosis :

    a. on condition of a supposition, *e.g.* 'Thou wouldst be happy, if she were absent.'
    β. in spite of a supposition, *e.g.* 'Thou wouldst be happy, though she were absent.'

4. The Impossible realization of the apodosis :

    a. on condition of what is not a fact, *e.g.* 'Thou hadst been happy, if she had been absent.'
    β. in spite of what is not a fact, *e.g.* 'Thou hadst been happy, though she had been absent.'

The following examples are in illustration of the above four classes ; the names of the moods and tenses being in accordance with the terminology adopted in §§ 19 and 20.

1st Class with Indic. or Imperative in *Apodosis* ; and Indic. in *Protasis* ·
    ' If ye *are* loyal, ye *are* injured men.'—Byron.
    ' If I *take* in gold, I *pay* in iron.'—Kingsley.
    ' Though he *was* a Son, yet *learned* [He] obedience.'—R.A.V.
 ' Gif þú hine forlǽtst [*Ind.*], ne eart [*Ind.*] þú þæs Caseres freónd.'—Jno.
xix. 12.

2nd Class with Indic. Imper. or Subj. in *Apodosis* ; and Subj. in
Protasis :
    ' If she *have* not contrived to wheedle her master. , it *is* her own fault.'
—Kingsley.
    ' If that *be* true, I *shall see* my boy again.'—Shak.
    ' If need *be*, *wilt* thou *wear* them ? '—Byron.
    ' A man *can receive* nothing, except it *have been given* him.'—R.A.V.
    ' If thou *be* the Son of God, *command*, &c.'
    = in O.E. Gyf þú Godes Sunu sý [*Subj.*], Cweð [*Imper.*] &c.

3rd Class with Imper. or Potential simp. or impf. in *Apodosis* ; and
Potential simp. or impf. in *Protasis* :
    ' If thou *shouldest* never *see* my face again, *pray* for my soul.'—Tennyson.
    ' It [*i.e.* the produce of two acres of hemp] *were* all too little, *were* it so
much more, to hang the thieves that be in England.'—Bp. Latimer, from
Froude.
    ' If I *were* mad, I *should forget* my son.'—Shak.
    ' If such a phenomenon *were* to occur at the present time, it *could admit*
of but one interpretation.'—Froude.
    ' What good *should follow* this, if this *were done*.'—Tennyson.
    ' *Were* I to give my own notions of it, I *would* deliver them after Plato's
manner.'—Addison.
    ' If lusty love *should go* in quest of beauty, where *should* he *find* it fairer
than in Blanch ? '—Shak.
    O.E. ' Búton þá dagas gescyrte wǽron [*Pot. simp.*], nǽre [*Pot. simp.*]
nán mann hál geworden.'—Matt. xxiv. 22.

4th Class, with Potential pf. in *Apodosis* and *Protasis* :[1]
    ' His fall *would have been* glorious, *had he* so *fallen* in the service of his
country.'—Addison.
    ' If thou *hadst been* here, my brother *had* not *died*.'—A.V.

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[1] In O.E. we have the Potential simple [usu. called the Subj. past] or
the Indicative simple past ; so that this class was not clearly distinguished
from Class 3, *e.g.*
    ' Hit wǽre [*Pot. simp.*] tó hrædlic, gif hé þá on cildcradole ácweald

113. Adverbial clauses of Manner are illustrated by the following quotations in which the most probable ellipses, even when obsolete, are supplied within brackets.

   a. Similarity.

      (1) Attaching to the Verb.

   'False humour *differs* from the true, *as a monkey does* [differ] *from a man.'*—Addison.

      'I *covered* my transgressions, *as Adam* [covered them].'—A.V

      'Thou shalt *love* thy neighbour, *as* [thou lovest] *thyself.'*—A.V
   = in O.E. Lufa þinne nehstan, swá þé sylfne.

   'She *regarded* me *as* [she would regard] *a very odd kind of fellow.'*—Addison.

   '*As* [we would turn them] *if the natural calamities of life were not sufficient for it,* we *turn* the most indifferent circumstances into misfortunes.'—Addison.

   'We *speak* sometimes with disdain of moral essays, *as* [we might speak if they were] *dull and dry and lifeless.'*—Dean Stanley.

   'He *understood* the speech of birds, *as-well-as they themselves do words.'*—*Hudibras.*

      (2) Attaching to an Adverb.

   'I am not *so* vain *as* [I should be if I were] *to think it presaged any dignity.'*—Addison.

   'We suffer *as* much [misery] from trifling accidents, *as* [we suffer misery] *from real evils.'*—Addison.

   'This is but just *as* reasonable *as* [it would be reasonable] *if a man should call for more light, when he has a mind to go to sleep.'*—Steele.

      ' *The more abundantly I love you, the* less I be loved.'—A.V.

   wurde [*Pot. simp.*]' = It *would have been* too premature, if he *had been killed* in the cradle.

      'Gif ic náne weorc ne worhte [*Ind. simple past*] on him, þe nán óðer ne worhte, næfdon [*Ind. simple past*] hí náne synne.'—John xv. 24.

' *The more he charged them*, so much *the* more a great deal
they published it.'—A.V. = in O.E. Swá he him swíðor bebeád,
swá hí swíðor bodedon = lit. as he more-strongly them com-
manded, so they more-strongly published.

    (3) Attaching to an Adjective.

' He walked through briars and brambles with the *same* ease,
as [he walked] *through the open air*.'—Addison.

β. Dissimilarity.

    (1) Attaching to an Adverb.

' A screech-owl at midnight has alarmed a family *more than
a band of robbers* [has alarmed them].'—Addison.

' Music that *gentlier* on the spirit lies *than tir'd eye-lids* [lie]
upon tir'd eyes.'—Tennyson.

' It is very difficult to define humour *otherwise*[1] *than* [it is
easy to define it], *as Cowley has done wit, by negatives*.'—
Addison.

' Men loved darkness *rather*[1] *than* [they loved] *light*.'—A.V.

    (2) Attaching to an Adjective.

' You are a *better* man *than I take you for* [a good man].'—
Kingsley.

' He got *more* kicks *than* [he got] *half-pence*.'

' Thou hast discovered thyself to an *other*[1] *than* [thou hast
discovered thyself to] *me*.'—A.V.

' The servant is not *greater than his lord* [is great].'—A.V.
= in O.E. Nys se þeowa furðra þonne se hláford.

γ. Effect.

    (1) Attaching to the verb by a combined ' so that,' or
' that,' = so that.

---

[1] The original meaning of such words as ' other,' ' rather,' &c., has so
completely faded from our minds that it is sometimes impossible to supply
the ellipses intelligibly. ' Other' once meant ' second,' and may be re-
garded as a comparative of ' one.' ' Rather' is the comparative of the old
word ' rathe' which meant ' early ' or ' soon.'

'All Israel *shouted* with a great shout, *so that the earth rang again.*'—A.V.

'And he teareth hym, *that* he fometh agayne.'—Tyndale.

'Thorgh the body proudely he hym smette, that he fille ded.'—John Lydgate.

(2) Attaching to the isolated adverb 'so.'

'The family is under *so* regular an economy,...*that it looks like a little commonwealth.*'—Addison.

(3) Attaching to the adjective 'such.'

'He taught the king to charm the queen in *such*-wise, *that no man could see her more.*'—Tennyson.

'His thoughts are.. frequently lost in *such* a cloud of words, *that it is hard to see the beauty of them.*'—Addison.

Obs. 1.—Clauses of Manner all serve to measure some expressed or latent adverb of degree [§ 82]. This adverb frequently exists in the form of the worn down prefix or suffix of some other adverb or adjective, *e.g.* su-ch [O.E. swilc, from swá-líc], mo-*re*, far-*ther ;* but when it appears thus, the analyst can only take cognizance of the word to which it has become inseparably joined. When however it appears as a distinct word, he must either allow the clause to attach to it ; or allow it to form part of a compound subordinate conjunction, as in ' We were concealed, *so that* he did not see us.'

Obs. 2.—Clauses of Effect fall under the head of Manner, as much as Clauses which tell us the measure of intensity by a comparison of Similarity or Dissimilarity. This becomes clear, when we observe that a clause of Effect measures the intensity of an action by telling us *what the action has achieved or can achieve.*

Obs. 3.—A clause introduced by 'As' is not adverbial but relative, when the 'as' can be replaced by a relative pronoun *discharging a nominative or accusative function.* See § 102.

Obs. 4.—' Than ' was originally the demonstrative adverb ' Then ', and the two forms of the word were used indiscriminately until recent times, *e.g.*

' *Than* the king commanded Sir Lucan —— '—Sir T. Malory.

' Also of their masters [thou] hast no less regard *then* of the flocks.'—Spencer.

From this we see that our comparisons of dissimilarity originated in the temporal sequence of two acts, which differed from one another in but one

degree,—the one act as it were following immediately upon the other. The track of such a linguist development is easily retraced thus,—

I admired the profile more than the full-face.

= I admired the profile more than I admired the full-face.

= I admired the profile more, then I admired the full face much.

= When I admired [or had admired] the profile more, then I admired the full face much.

From this illustration we see that what is now the dependent adverbial clause of comparison was once the main clause, and that what is now the main clause was once a dependent clause of time.

Obs. 5.—'That,' used as a subordinate conjunction, has three values, which may be tabulated as follows,—

That = $\begin{cases} \text{so that,} \\ \text{in order that,} \\ \text{because,} \end{cases}$ when it tells the $\begin{cases} \text{effect of an action.} \\ \text{purpose of an action.} \\ \text{ground } ,, \quad ,, \quad ,, \end{cases}$

And the clauses introduced by it must be classified according to these values. A writer or speaker is, or ought to be, able at once to tell the value of each 'that' he uses; but a reader or hearer is sometimes unable to do so, as in the following passages,—

'And there was a day assigned betwixt King Arthur and Sir Mordred *that* [? 'in order that,' or 'so that'] they should meet upon a down beside Salisbury...whereof King Arthur was passing glad *that* [? 'because' or 'in order that'] he might be avenged upon Sir Mordred '—Sir T. Malory.

'I intend to lay aside a whole week for this undertaking, *that* [? 'in order that,' or 'so that'] the scheme of my thoughts may not be broken.'—Addison.

114. Uncertainty as to the Classification of Adverbial clauses arises chiefly from two causes, viz. either from the *same conjunction* or the *same thought* serving different purposes. In the former case, we have such ambiguous clauses as have been illustrated in § 113, Obs. 5. In the latter case, we have the very common phenomenon of clauses of Place or Time serving to express ideas of Cause or Manner, as in

'I reverence him...*in that he seemed to me, &c.*' (Ben Jonson)

where the local sphere, in which reverence was exerted, supplies the reason for that reverence.

'But will they come, *when you do call ?*' (Shakspere)

where the temporal clause supplies either the condition or

initial cause of their coming; so that the 'when' = if, or because.

'All farewells should be sudden *when for ever*.' (Byron) where the temporal clause supplies also the condition, under which a farewell should be sudden.

In all cases of ambiguity, or plurality of use, the analyst must go by what appears to him to be the most likely, or most prominent, meaning.

Obs.—Some of the above examples are sufficient to show that the Protasis of a hypothetical sentence may lie concealed in either a temporal or local adverbial clause, just as we have already seen it sometimes lurking in the adjectival clause, § 105 Obs. The presence of this veiled Protasis is often so strongly realized that the mood used in the temporal or local clause answers to the mood appropriate [§ 112 Obs. 3] to a regularly expressed protasis.

115. The **Contraction of Adverbial clauses** is generally found to arise, either from an ellipsis, or from the substitution of some of the briefer adverbial equivalents tabulated in § 82.

a. When the contraction arises from an Ellipsis, the analyst may often with advantage supply the missing words. The insertion should either stand in a bracket, as in § 113; or outside the inverted commas, as in the following:—

'We can scarcely call it aught' *if it be* 'beyond a vision.'— Byron.

'She has no existence but [1]' *she exists* 'when she is looked upon.'—Addison.

'The thief cometh not, but' *he comes* 'for to steal.'—A.V.

'It is enough for the disciple that he be as his master' *is.*— A.V.

'He is never overbearing, though' *he is* 'accustomed to command men.'—Steele.

[1] 'but' = except, unless.

'Ye who hate such inconsistence,' *if ye desire* 'to be easy, keep your distance.'—Swift.

β. When the contraction arises from the substitution of some briefer adverbial form, the sentence ceases to belong to the Complex class, and becomes a Simple sentence [unless made otherwise by the presence of some other than the contracted clause]. The following are a few examples of this form of contraction :—

(1) by the substitution of the Dative Infinitive for a Final Clause.

'I cam not *that I deem the world*, but *that I make the world saf*' (Wycliffe) = 'I came not *to judge the world*, but *to save the world*' (A.V.) = in O.E. Ne cóm ic middan-eard to démanne, ac þæt ic gehǽle middan-eard.

This adverbial Infinitive used frequently to be preceded by the double preposition 'for to,' as in

'She goth to the grave, *for to* wepe there' (Wycliffe) = She goeth unto the grave, to weep there.—A.V.
and it is now frequently attached to the adverbial phrase 'in order,' as in

'It is not worth while to perplex the reader with inquiries into the abstract nature of evidence *in order* to determine a question.'—Bishop Butler.

(2) by the substitution of a participle, &c., used as the subordinating-attribute [§ 76] of the noun or pronoun which would have formed the subject of the adverbial clause, as in

We shot it *flying* = We shot it, *when it was flying.*

'A little fire is quickly trodden out; which, being suffered [= if it be suffered], rivers cannot quench.'—Shak.

This subordinating-attribute is often preceded by the subordinate conjunction appropriate to the uncontracted clause: but this conjunction is almost always capable of omission,

without injury to the sense, though with some loss of per-
spicuity, *e.g.*

'[After] having-been thus particular upon myself, I shall...
give an account of those gentlemen.'—Addison.

'He was very shy of using it, [as] being loath to wear it out.'
—*Hudibras.*

We shot it [when] flying.

(3) by the substitution of a prepositional phrase, usually
consisting of a preposition and gerund [§ 25], as in

I always walk *before* [prep.] *dining* [gerund] = I always walk
before [sub. conj.] *I dine* [clause].

'*Without* [prep.] *being imposed-upon* [gerund] *by words*, we
may judge impartially of the thought' (Addison) = *Unless we
are imposed-upon by words*, we may judge, &c.

'*Upon* [prep.] *his being made* [gerund] *pope*, the statue of
Pasquin was one night dressed in a very dirty shirt' (Addison)
= *When he* [*i.e. Sextus*] *was made pope*, the statue of Pas-
quin, &c.

'*For all thy realms*, I would not so blaspheme our country's
creed' (Byron) = *If thou wert to give me all thy realms*, I
would not, &c.

(4) by the substitution of a single adverb, as in

'My heart was touched,...had it been human *else!*'
(Southey) = My heart was touched....Would it have been
human, *if it had been otherwise?*

116. Co-ordination in the Complex Sentence. With
the exception of the main finite verb, any word, phrase, or
clause belonging to the Complex sentence may have one or
more co-ordinate terms, whose co-ordinate relations are usually
indicated by co-ordinate conjunctions [§ 119].

117. In applying our **Analytic Marks** to Complex Sentences we must treat the dependent and subordinate Clauses as if they were single words,—nouns, adjectives, or adverbs,—as follows:

It is certain that you are mistaken.
71, 97

They sent a request that you would go.
71, 98

The letters, that you asked for, are here.
105

I know who [= the man who] did it.
104

You saw where [= the place where] it was.
104

They reached Paris where they separated.
107

My father who is blind stumbled.
107

The beggar stood where you saw him.
110

'If you would succeed,' you 'study hard.'
112

We were concealed so that he did not see us.
113

' The thief cometh not but ' he comes 'for to steal.'
. 112, 115

He wrote so-that he got the prize.
92, 113

The fruit is better-than we expected.
113

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

118. Any sentence which contains two or more primary sentences [clauses] is called a Compound Sentence. This is the same thing as saying that a Compound Sentence is one which has two or more main finite verbs. There may be an ellipsis of the finite copula, when both the subject and complement are expressed,—as in the following sentence of Macaulay's, where the ellipsis is supplied in brackets, ' Nothing can be more contemptible than the regular military resistance which Spain offers to an invader ; nothing [can be] more formidable than, &c.' But otherwise the ellipsis of a main finite verb will generally be found to result in the formation of a simple or complex sentence. Thus, by the ellipsis of the second main verb in ' Dick walked home and Jane walked home,' a compound sentence becomes a simple sentence with two co-ordinate subjects, viz. ' Dick and Jane walked home.'

Obs.—As a general rule, the number of main finite verbs tells us the number of co-ordinate clauses in a compound sentence.

119. There is always some **relation subsisting between co-ordinates**, and this relation is usually expressed by a co-ordinate conjunction. These relations, and the conjunctions which express them, may be tabulated as follows :—

CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

Cumulative { and, also, eke, likewise, withal, nor = and not, as well as, further, furthermore, more-over, well,
first, then, again, secondly, thirdly, lastly ; now ;
both—and, not only—but, partly—partly, half—half, now—now.

		Exclusive	otherwise, else.
			not—but, or.
Adversative		Alternative	or, nor, while, whereas ;
			either—or, neither—nor, whether—or ;
			on the one hand—on the other hand.
		Arrestive .	but, but then ; but still, but yet ;
			still, and still, yet, and yet, only, nevertheless, however ;
			for all that, at the same time.
Illative . .		Sequential :—then, so then, so, thereupon, whereupon.
		Consequential	therefore, wherefore ;
			thence, hence, whence ;
			consequently, accordingly.
		Resultant :—thus, so, so that, and so.

Obs. 1. Many of these conjunctions are merely adverbials, put to a special use. Thus for example, *now, yet, still, well, consequently,* are ordinary adverbs ; *then, thence, so,* are demonstrative adverbs ; *whence, however,* are relative adverbs ; *on the one hand, on the other hand, at the same time, there-upon* [= *upon that*], *where-upon* [= *upon which*], *there-fore* [= *for that*], *where-fore* [= *for which*], are, or once were, adverbial prepositional phrases. It is only as they are put to cumulative, adversative, or illative [*i.e.* inferential] uses, that they become co-ordinate conjunctions.

Obs. 2. Combinations of the above conjunctions are very common, and some such appear in the above table. When the combination consists of conjunctions of the same class [*e.g.* 'and moreover,' 'but yet,'] we have possibly nothing but a greater emphasis or intensity given to the expression But, when the combination consists of conjunctions of different classes [*e.g.* 'and so,' 'and therefore,' 'and still,' 'but then '], we have two shades of thought, and we can only classify such a compound according as the general meaning of the passage shows the one or other conjunction to predominate.

Obs. 3. The following is a table of the most common of the Old English co-ordinate conjunctions.

Cumulative	and = and ; eác = eke, also ; ealswá = also ; gelíce = likewise ;
	oððe furðum = also, moreover.
	ǽrest = first, þá = then, ongeán = again.
Adversative	Exclusive :— elles = else ; óðerlícor = otherwise.
	Alternative : óððe = or.
	óððe—óððe = either—or.
	nàðor ne—ne = neither—nor.
	Arrestive :—ac = but, nevertheless ; git = yet, still.

Illative . . { for·þám *v*. for·þý = therefore.
þonne = then; wıtodlíce = therefore, wherefore, so then, thereupon.
eornostlíce = therefore, wherefore, accordingly, then, and so.

120. Co-ordinate **Cumulative clauses** are illustrated in the following sentences :—

' The sleek Chaldee smiled *and* purred.'—Kingsley.

' Let spades be trumps ! she said, *and* trumps they were.'—Pope.

' John Gılpin was a citizen of credit and renown, a train-band captain *eke* was he of famous London town.'—Cowper.

' Hear *and* believe ' thy own importance know, *nor* bound [= *and* bound *not*] thy narrow vıews to things below.' —Pope.

' *Now* Israel loved Joseph, more than all his children.' —A.V.

' *Lastly*, it will appear that blasphemy and profaneness...are absolutely without excuse.'—Bishop Butler.

' He hoped *withal* that money would be given him of Paul.' —R.A.V.

' *First*, It is the province of Reason to judge, &c...*Secondly*, Reason is able to judge, &c.'—Bishop Butler.

121. Co-ordinate **Adversative clauses** are illustrated ın the following sentences :—

a. Exclusive.

' 'Twas well the lictors might not pierce to where the maiden lay, *else* surely had they been all twelve torn lımb from lımb that day.'—Macaulay.

β. Alternative.

' Win this fight *or* die.'—Macaulay.

' Morally, it was in his eyes just and therefore probable,

while, as for testimony, men were content with very little in those days.'—Kingsley.

'*Either* there was no course of Nature...*or*, if there were, we are not acquainted, &c.'—Bishop Butler.

'The licentious multitude *neither* loved the rigid Maximus, *nor* did they sufficiently dread the mild and humane Balbinus.' —Gibbon.

γ. Arrestive.

'Oft she rejects, *but* [she] never once offends.'—Pope.

'The splendour of Verona may be traced in its remains; *yet* Verona was less celebrated than Aquileia.'—Gibbon.

'In dreams like these he went, *and still* of every dream Oneiza formed a part.'—Southey.

'Large tears found their way...to his eye. His features were, *nevertheless*, calm and composed.'—Scott.

'*However*, it is certain that doubting implies a degree of evidence.'—Bishop Butler.

'*But still* it may be objected, &c.'—Bishop Butler.

'*And yet* so fiery [that] he would bound, &c.'—*Hudibras*.

'*While still* the more he kicked and spurred, the less the sullen jade has stirred.'—*Hudibras*.

Obs. The Alternative Adversative Conjunctions necessarily impart a hypothetical character even to categorical clauses. This necessity arises from the obvious truth that, if only one of two alternatives is to hold good, then the exclusion of the one becomes the *Condition* of the other; and if neither of the two alternatives is to hold good, then the exclusion of the one becomes a powerless *Concession* towards the realization of the other, Thus,

'He either said that the army was defeated, or he said that it was retreat-ing' = Unless [*condition*] he said that the army was defeated, he said that it was retreating.

'He neither said that you were rich, nor did he say that you were poor.' = Though [*concession*] he did not say that you were rich, he did not say that you were poor.'

The fact of this interchangeability has induced some Grammarians [see
Donaldson's Greek Gr. § 384] to form a special class of hypothetical sen-
tences called 'Disjunctive [*i.e.* Alternative] Hypotheticals.' We however
think it best to treat Alternative clauses just as we treat other co-ordinates;
and by so doing we restrict the term Hypothetical to an Apodosis with a
Protasis expressed or understood [see § 112 obs. 2].

122. Co-ordinate **Illative** conjunctions are illustrated in
the following sentences :—

α. Sequential.

'Know *then*, unnumber'd spirits round thee fly, the light
militia of the lower sky.'—Pope.

'If David *then* call him Lord, how is he His son ?'—A.V.

'Her father promised, *whereupon* she grew so cheerful that,
&c.'—Tennyson.

β. Consequential.

'Ye are idle, *therefore* ye say, Let us go.'—A.V.

'It is a confirmation of natural religion, *and-therefore* men-
tioned in the former part of this treatise.'—Bishop Butler.

'As we wax hot in faction, in battle we wax cold : *wherefore*
men fight not as they fought in the brave days of old.'—
Macaulay.

'*Hence* we may clearly see, where lies the distinction.'—
Bishop Butler.

O.E. 'Ic lǽdde wíf hám ; for-þám ic ne mæg cuman,' = I
have led home a wife, *therefore* I may not come.

γ. Resultant.

'And after a few years.. they would agree to live more or less
according to the laws of God and common humanity ; *and so*
one more Christian state would be formed.'—Kingsley.

'Now this, as it is a confirmation of natural religion,...
so likewise it has a tendency to remove any prejudice.'—
Bp. Butler.

'*And thus* we see that the only question, &c.'—Bp. Butler.

'Go ye therefore into the high-ways. ..*So* those servants went out, &c.'—A.V.

'He is my defence, *so that* I shall not fall.'—Prayer Book.

Obs. 1. The three classes of Illative Clauses are easily distinguished from one another, when the following differences are clearly perceptible, - which is not always the case. The Sequential clause states something, which in some undefined way *follows-on*, grows-out of, or is connected with, something else just said. The Consequential clause states the *legitimate outcome*, or logical conclusion, of what is contained in one or more previous statements. The Resultant clause states the *accidental outcome*, or non-logical conclusion, of what has just been told.

Obs. 2. The Consequential Co-ordinate clause is the exact opposite of the Subordinate clause expressing an Initial cause [§ 108]. Hence when one of these clauses is used, it is seldom necessary to use the other; and we may say with indifference

'It snows, *therefore we cannot travel*'; or '*Because it snows*, we cannot travel.'

In the first example we have two co-ordinate clauses, of which the latter tells *the consequence;* in the second example we have a subordinate and a main clause, of which the former tells *the cause.*

Obs. 3. The Resultant Co-ordinate clause is usually identical in form, and nearly allied in use to the subordinate clause of Effect [§ 108]. The difference however is easily explained ; for, while the co-ordinate resultant clause tells the result of some *fact ;* the subordinate clause of effect measures the intensity of some *verb, adjective, or adverb,* by telling us of some effect ;—in other words the co-ordinate clause expressive of result attaches to some *entire clause or sentence,* while the subordinate clause expressive of effect attaches to a *single word.* Both these clauses are frequently expressed by 'so that.' If the 'so that' can be replaced by 'and so,' the student may be sure that he has a co-ordinate clause ; but if he is able to separate the 'so' from the 'that' and make the 'that-clause' measure the intensity of the 'so,' then he has a subordinate clause [see § 113 obs. 1]

123. Having now completed our survey of the Compound sentence, we must apply to it our **analytic marks.** Inasmuch as a compound sentence is merely the union of two or more primary, simple, or complex sentences, by means of co-ordinate conjunctions expressed or understood, there is really no addition to be made to our marks, unless it be that of a small

'c.c.' placed under the *co*-ordinate *con*junction introducing a clause, thus

Robert was riding and his brother was swimming.
　　　　　　　　 c.c.

It never rains here but [it] always pours.
　　　　　　　　 c.c.

You were successful therefore I rejoice greatly.
　　　　　　　　　 c.c.

'The young prince and his profligate favourites revelled in

all the license of sovereign power; but his hands were yet
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　 c.c.

unstained with blood; and he had even displayed a generosity-
　　　　　　　　　　　 c.c.

of-sentiment, which might perhaps have ripened into solid

virtue.'—Gibbon.

　　　　　'And on her lover's arm she leant,
　　　　　 c.c.

　　　　　And round her waist she felt it fold,
　　　　　 c.c.

　　　　　And far across the hills they went
　　　　　 c c.

　　　　　In that new world-which-is-the-old:

Across the hills, and far away

Beyond their utmost purple rim,

And deep into the dying day

The happy princess follow'd him.'—Tennyson.

124. An extension of the Mark system is a practical necessity in all long and involved sentences, inasmuch as an analysis, carried out *solely in reference to primary sentences*, rests far short of the requirements of the student. If the following very simple directions be carried out, there are few sentences which can escape from a ready application of our marks.

1st. Mark out the whole sentence, as previously described, in relation to the primary sentence or sentences.

2nd. Place each dependent clause in brackets; and, if there are clauses within clauses, let the successive inclusions be indicated by brackets of different form, as in algebra.

3rd. Treat successively each set of clauses, as if they formed independent sentences; and apply the marks separately to each.

4th. Place underneath each

subordinate conjunction an .   .   .   .   s.c.
co-ord. conj., introducing a co-ordinate clause, a   c.c.
'that,' introducing a noun clause, an asterisk

5th. There may still remain amongst the phrases various double-functioned [§ 94] apposites, attributes, and adverbial attributes. These must be hyphened to their noun, and then marked *above* the word, thus

when subordinate   .   .   .   .   ∿∿∿∿∿
  ,,   co-ordinate or complementary   .   ∿∿∿∿∿∿

6th. Farther connections between compounds, different

words, phrases, or clauses, may be made by hyphens or dashes, according to the requirements of the sentence or the convenience of the analyst.

The following is a sentence constructed so as to illustrate the application of these directions.

FIRST STAGE.

The train having left the platform, my father with his
86

77
face strangely agitated accosted the policeman [to whom
81

you gave the shilling yesterday] and begged {that he would
105   c.c.   *

tell him [who the officer (that sprang so lightly into the
98

last carriage) might be]} [as there was something very
s.c.   112

suspicious in his appearance].

SECOND STAGE.

a. To whom you gave the shilling yesterday.

β. He would tell him [who the officer (that sprang so
99

lightly into the last carriage) might be].

γ. There was something very-suspicious in his appearance.

THIRD STAGE.

a. Who the officer-(that sprang so lightly into the last

carriage) might be.

FOURTH STAGE.

a. That sprang so-lightly into the last carriage.
    102   38   92   84

DEFECTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS.

125. There are many sentences which almost or altogether
defy analysis. Setting aside mere cases of ellipsis, the great
majority of these perplexing constructions fall under the head
of **Anacolutha**, *i.e.* instances of logical non-sequence. Such
grammatical dislocations between different members of the
same sentence arise from various causes, as

a. From strong emotion, *e.g.*

'Bertrand is—what I dare not name!'—Scott.

Also in Luke xix. 42, where, to use the fine expression of
Winer, 'sorrow has suppressed the apodosis.' ·

β. From a sudden change of construction during the progress
of the sentence, *e.g.*

'And now, lest he put forth his hand, ... therefore the
Lord God sent him forth.'—A.V.

'And he charged him to tell no man; but go thy way.'—
R.A.V.

'And it was told him by certain which said, Thy mother and thy brethren stand without.'—A.V.

'How that they ferd,—let it passe and go.'—Occleve.

γ. From carelessness in arrangement, punctuation, or grammar :—

'And they sat down, and did eat and drink both of them ' (A.V.) = And they both of them sat down and did eat and drink.

'But to return to our ancient poems in picture. [= ,] I would humbly propose, &c.'—Addison.

'The sun upon the calmest sea appears not half so bright as thee [= thou].'—Prior.

'Yet he seems mightier far than them [= they].—Byron.

'Before I missed it, there were [= was] a cluster of people who had found it '—Addison.

'He continues to wear a coat and doublet of the same cut that were [= was] in fashion at the time of his repulse.'—Steele.

'But now my lingering feet revenge denies [= deny].'—Chatterton.

'The wrinkled grass its silver joys unfold [= unfolds].'—Chatterton.

'Let each esteem other better than themselves [= himself].'—A.V.

'She lifts the coffer-lids that close his eyes, where, lo, two lamps, burnt out, in darkness lies { = lie] '—Shakspere.

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THE END.

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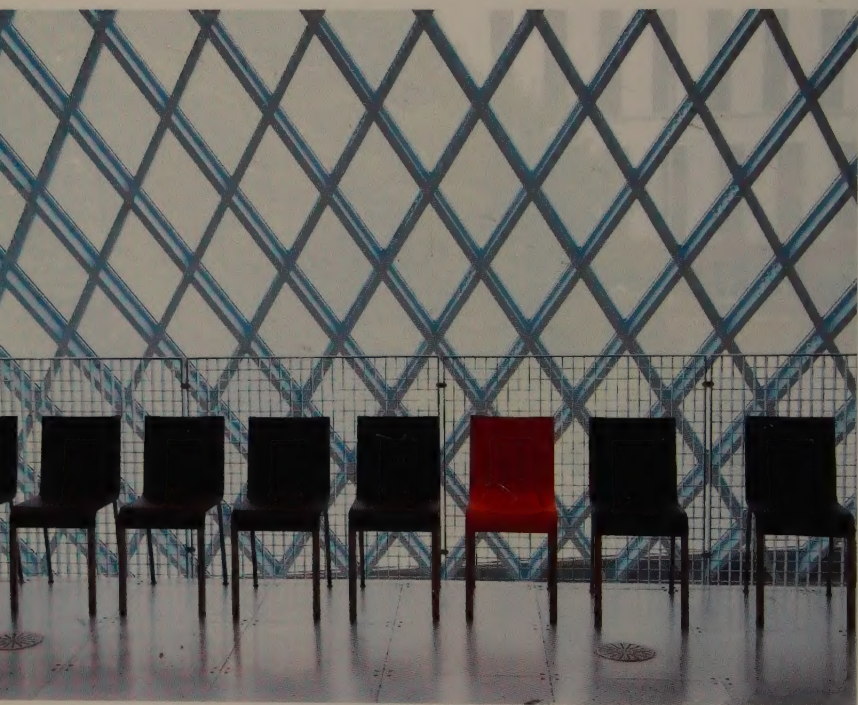Contact us:
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